

# NEW POSSIBILITIES IN EDUCATION

## The Annals

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\*An important article on this subject failed to reach the Editor in time to be included in this volume. The following reference will be of interest on this subject: Ward, Edward J., *The Social Center*, New York: D. Appleton & Company, 1913.

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## FOREWORD

The membership of the American Academy of Political and Social Science—numbering now more than six thousand—is made up principally of intelligent men and women who are both progressive and public spirited. The great majority of them are laymen in the field of education. They are nevertheless in most instances among the leading promoters of all public educational movements which tend to the enrichment of the individual life or to the collective attainment of our national ideals. They reside in every section of the country and include among their number representatives of all the principal vocations. Into their hands this volume of *The Annals* will fall in the course of its regular circulation. It is hoped that many additional copies will be read by members of Chautauqua and Teachers' reading circles and by the regular patrons of our public libraries. In planning the volume the editor has endeavored, therefore, to include only such topics as were thought to be worthy of the attention of these several groups of serious-minded readers.

The United States of today furnishes the best laboratory in the world's history for the experimental determination of what is really worth while in the organization, content, and method of public education. All open-minded, forward-looking citizens are deeply interested in the general improvement of our educational system. They earnestly desire to see any and every innovation which promises real advancement, whether suggested by expert or by layman, given a fair trial under the most favorable conditions. They recognize—from a sense of national patriotism—the duty of all to promote country-wide experimentation, on a suitable scale, with every rational practice in education which has been conspicuously successful in a given local community or in any particular social group in our complex population.

It is believed that the aims set forth and the practices described in the articles which follow will indicate in each case one of the lines of possible national achievement in public education. It is hoped that the wide study of these aims and practices may result in a more general attempt at such educational readjustment as may be found to be sound in theory and feasible in practice.

**FOREWORD**

Part I is devoted to a discussion of some of the newer social aims in education and to a statement of a few of the changes which are being made in the curriculum and organization of the school to bring them into harmony with these aims. Part II tells the story of some definite attempts to coördinate the activities of the several social institutions closely related to the school. Part III gives in outline a description of the functions and activities of some of the numerous agencies which are promoting the educational interests of adolescents and adults in the post-school period of life.

Many topics of equal importance with those treated have had to be omitted for lack of space. This leaves some gaps in the outline of topics originally planned. It is hoped, however, that the introductory chapter by the editor may reveal the unity of purpose which has prompted the selection of those included. The conditions under which such a volume as this must be compiled and edited render it impossible to give the whole work the definiteness of aim or the logical organization and balanced treatment which could be given if the contributors were able to confer in person with each other and with the editor before attempting the preparation of their several chapters. It is believed, however, that the articles are well named, that there is little undesirable repetition and that the table of contents will be a reliable guide to the reader who has time for only a few articles on topics along the lines of his special interests or particular needs. The sub-headings in the longer articles will clearly reveal the scope and order of treatment.

The editor takes this opportunity to thank all of the numerous contributors for their voluntary services and for their unfailing promptness and courtesy in the course of the correspondence which it has been necessary to conduct in connection with the preparation of this volume.

**AMBROSE L. SUHRIE,**  
*Editor in Charge of Volume.*

## THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF A DEMOCRACY

By AMBROSE L. SUHRIE, PH.D.,

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University of Pennsylvania.

"It is my hope that the time may soon come when the poorest child living in the meanest hovel on the remotest mountain side in all this commonwealth may enjoy every educational advantage he is willing to improve."

This sentiment was expressed—if the newspaper reports may be relied upon—by the governor of Pennsylvania in a public address recently delivered to a group of rural folk assembled at a village railway station in a remote part of the state. It is a restatement in modern form of the plea with which Thaddeus Stevens thrilled and moved his colleagues in the Legislature at Harrisburg in 1835 when the repeal of the law providing for a free school system in Pennsylvania seemed imminent. It is an epigrammatic and very impressive statement of the educational aim which has dominated the efforts of all our great leaders for a century and which has guided the best impulses of all our people in all sections of the republic since the founding of our state school systems.

On the opening page of his *School and Society*, published in 1900, Professor John Dewey says: "What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child that must the community want for all its children. Any other ideal for our schools is narrow and unlovely; acted upon it destroys our democracy."

The extent to which we have succeeded in effectively embodying the ideals set up in these two quotations in the working program of our twentieth century educational systems—local, state and national—has given the world the real measure of our civic achievements. It has also furnished a fair indication of the soundness or unsoundness of our national democracy. And whether our educational achievements as a people are creditable or otherwise, when measured by the ideals we have professed, it is at once obvious that the sacrifice made by individuals, communities, and states to realize these cherished ideals constitute one of the most inspiring chapters in the whole history of social progress.

**EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY**

If we have failed to provide democratic "equality of educational opportunity for all the children of all the people" it must surely be due to some fundamental misconception of the meaning of equality or to our inability to reshape our practices in any given community with sufficient rapidity to meet the changing intellectual, social and economic conditions of a new era. Or the failure may result from both these causes. At any rate it would seem worth while to attempt a statement of what is involved in making (and keeping) our educational system truly democratic. The following propositions would appear to be defensible and sufficiently important to merit some special emphasis:

1. There should be an efficient school reasonably accessible to every child who may profit by its ministry.
2. The school system should be so organized and conducted as to minister with equal diligence to the needs of pupils of each of the several grades of natural ability.
3. The program of school studies and activities should be so many-sided as to show equal deference to the tastes and interests and needs—vocational and cultural—of all.
4. The school system should be so organized as not to encourage or permit the segregation of social classes and should be so conducted as not to exemplify an undemocratic control of student activities.
5. The administration and control of our educational systems should be vested jointly in central and local authorities and the highest intelligence and best judgment of expert and layman should be brought to bear on the formulation and execution of general educational policies.
6. All the educational agencies of the local community, of the state, and of the nation should be brought to bear upon the post-school education of both adolescents and adults.

It is the purpose of the writer to develop these several theses as fully as the space allotment will permit.

**SCHOOLS MADE ACCESSIBLE**

There should be an efficient school reasonably accessible to every child who may profit by its ministry. There is a very general impression abroad among us that this has long been accomplished. Not so. We have, to be sure, made legal provision in most states for bringing elementary school facilities within easy reach of all our children, but we have in many instances gone no further than

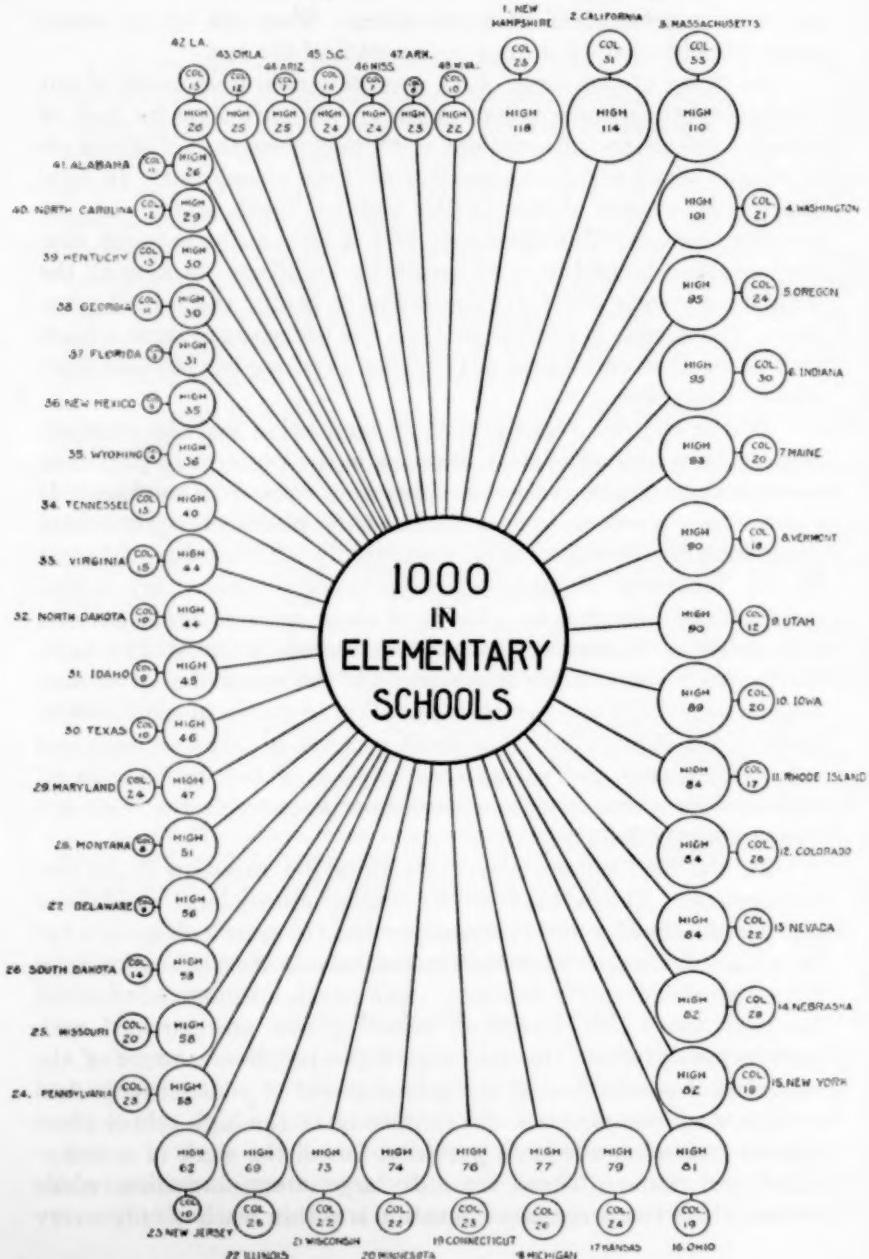
the mere enactment of such provisions. They are by no means uniformly enforced—not even in the spirit of the law.

In many of our large cities a considerable proportion of our children of elementary school grade are on part time for lack of adequate school accommodations and tens of thousands of others are in schools which ought long ago to have been abandoned. In rural districts thousands of the smaller children reach school only by traveling unreasonable distances, and it frequently happens that they are then housed in most unsuitable buildings—lacking all the ordinary comforts which are conducive to health and school progress. The decline in rural population has left many of these schools with so small an enrollment as to render anything like efficient work wholly impossible.

In the city the rapid growth of population and the constant shifting of congested centers have made the problem of providing suitable and adequate school facilities very difficult of solution. It is gratifying, however, to note that in many places where the school population has been increasing most rapidly—in the congested areas of our tenement districts—splendid modern elementary school buildings are springing up. Many of these are so magnificent and substantial as to suggest the great cathedrals of the Middle Ages. In the open country the movement for the consolidation of one-teacher schools by the free transportation of pupils to some central point in the district has made much progress in many sections and promises an easy and satisfactory solution of this problem in all communities where mountain barriers or impassable roads do not render the plan impracticable.

In the field of secondary education the situation is far less satisfactory. The feeling is not uncommon among large numbers of our people—in city and in country—that the state's obligation has been fully discharged when the mere rudiments of an education have been provided at public expense. As a result, adequate educational facilities above the elementary school grades are provided with certainty only where the majority of the people are aware of the educational possibilities of the golden period of adolescence. And even in such communities the equipment of the high school plant usually makes no adequate provision for all the work of a many-sided curriculum. There are still large areas, including whole states, where free secondary education is within reach of only a very

PUPILS IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES FOR EACH 1,000 PUPILS ENROLLED IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN EACH STATE IN 1910



(From publications of the Russell Sage Foundation. There is no good evidence that the distributions have been radically changed since 1910—the date of this chart.)

small fraction of the boys and girls that are eligible. At a time when intelligent men and women everywhere agree that the free education of all normal young people should continue well through the period of adolescence, it is surely a violation of every principle of sound democracy to deny high school advantages to any adolescent merely because of untoward circumstances over which as an individual he can have no control. Unhappily, too, these advantages are most frequently denied to the alert and ambitious boys and girls of the rural districts where it would seem the nation is just now in most urgent need of capable leadership.

It is most gratifying, however, to note the achievements of the past two decades in the rapid extension of high schools. Up to the year 1900 there were scarcely a dozen public institutions in all of the South which by the best standards of the times could be called high schools. These were exclusively in the large cities. Today almost a thousand high grade public secondary schools exist in that section alone and the progress elsewhere has been almost equally noteworthy. A single small county in Indiana has built fifteen magnificent rural high schools during the past eight years. The outlook for the immediate future is bright. The recent rapid growth of permanent state school funds and the practice of apportioning large grants of money for the aid and encouragement of the smaller high schools will in the near future—unless all signs fail—bring secondary education, certainly in all our more thickly populated states, within reach of all who really desire its benefits.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that there is need for a more general equalization of opportunities for university, college and technical school training at public expense among all the professional and industrial groups in our complex population and for a more equitable distribution of such facilities in the sparsely settled areas of our country. These readjustments are, in many respects, as vital to the interests of democracy as is the general promotion of elementary and secondary education among all the children of all the people. Lack of space forbids the full development of this statement.

The situation as described above, while satisfactory in many respects, presents some bad symptoms. The reason for the delay in many sections—in city and in country—in providing school facilities equally satisfactory in character and reasonably accessible

to all is certainly not due to any serious economic limitations. We are living in a "surplus economy"; and our total taxable wealth is adequate for the most severe demands which our school budgets may make upon it. The real reason then must be found in the survival of the undemocratic notion that some special consideration is due the individuals and the communities which contribute the larger share of the public taxes and that the less prosperous individuals and the poorer communities—where usually children are most numerous—are less worthy of consideration. The frequency with which one may hear the well-to-do classes in our industrial cities remark that such and such school accommodations are "good enough" for the sweat shop districts and the frequency also with which one may hear rural folk grant the easy assumption that city people in general are for some reason "entitled" to better school facilities than those living in the open country furnish adequate proof that we have not as a people clearly understood the state's equal obligation to all. Industrial cities have in many instances accumulated tremendous taxable assets by removing the natural wealth from forest and mine in larger areas, sometimes far removed. In some cases they have found it all but impossible to expend their school revenues raised from the levy of the minimum millage on an assessment based on a fractional part of the market value of property. In other instances the "meanest types of schools" have been maintained for the minimum term only by an excessive burden of taxation upon the "peasants" who still occupy these *denuded* mountains. A superficial study of school district boundaries, of property assessments, of tax rates and of school expenditures in almost any of our states will at once reveal concrete evidence of glaring inequality. The only real remedy for it must be found in the application of the democratic principle of "taxing equally all the property of all the people for the support of equal educational opportunities for all the children of all the people." In theory this principle has long met with general acceptance; in practice it has been by no means universally applied. Until that has been done, the first step has not been taken in carrying out the educational program of a truly democratic republic.

#### PROVISIONS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Our school systems should be so organized and conducted as to minister with equal diligence to the needs of pupils of each of the several grades of natural ability.

It used to be assumed that the benefits of education were heaven ordained for the privileged few and that at best these advantages might be safely extended to such promising children outside the ranks of the "best families" as should in some way or other give indication of the possibility of capable and useful leadership.

With the development during the nineteenth century of a more democratic concept of education, there have come not only free schools for all but also some forms of educational compulsion, covering at least the childhood period. This has resulted not primarily from any philanthropic impulse to guarantee to childhood its inalienable rights but rather from the conscious purpose of society to protect itself from the burdens imposed by those who otherwise might grow up morally vicious, physically defective or economically dependent. This compulsion first took the form of enforced school attendance. It brought into our school systems a large contingent of children either mentally incompetent or physically unfit for profitable participation in the traditional school program of studies and activities. The rapid decline during the past twenty-five years in the relative numbers in attendance at private "select" schools for those thought to be especially capable has brought into the public school systems another considerable group.

Our public school enrollment has since been more or less typical of all the social and industrial groups in our entire population and is everywhere truly representative of all conceivable shades of variation in individual native endowment of positive and sometimes even of negative character. This is especially true in the elementary grades. To state the facts in more scientific terms one might say that there are about four per cent of talented pupils some of them bordering on real genius; about ninety-two per cent who are neither highly talented nor in any real sense feeble-minded ranging from the bright, active and alert types all the way down to the slowest and dullest; and about four per cent who may be designated as feeble-minded, usually including a considerable number of really deficient mentality.

Speaking in terms of their educability we need to designate only two groups; the first composed of those who under proper instruction and training—including industrial as well as academic—may become socially competent, that is, self supporting and more or less

independent members of society; the second composed of a relatively small number who, because of congenital weakness or defect or through serious disease or other subsequent misfortune, will always—in spite of any advantages which the school may offer—be and remain socially incompetent, that is dependent upon others for actual support and in most cases requiring institutional care. This second group includes the morally insane, the violent, the demented, the feeble-minded, epileptics, those suffering from chronic infectious diseases, and such as are helplessly crippled or deformed. Not being in any proper sense of the term educable subjects, they are usually isolated in custodial institutions.

It may be said with respect to the larger group, those who are educable and therefore socially competent—and this includes nearly all the children in most communities—that the problem of making adequate provision for all types of them seems to be one of growing complexity. This is not really the case, however. The fact that experts in our psychological clinics, in our schools of education and in our public school systems have identified many types of misfits and have discovered some of the causes for the considerable retardation which has clogged the machinery of our elementary school grades has only emphasized the complexity of the problem. All of these special investigations and studies have in one form or another revealed the simple fact that children have *individual* characteristics and *individual* needs. As a result educational authorities and teachers everywhere are making commendable efforts to provide an educational program of interest and of social value for every child. They have greatly enriched the course of study in recent years and have provided for new forms of instruction in a great variety of special types of public institutions. These include in many of our large centers at least the following schools or classes: for the blind, for the deaf, for delinquents (including persistent truants), for cripples, for anemics, for children suffering from nervous diseases, for children having speech defects, for foreigners (until they learn the elements of English), for the backward, for such as especially need certain types of motor training, and for supernormal or exceptionally gifted children.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See Van Sickle, Witmer and Ayres, *Provisions for Exceptional Children in Public Schools*, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. Also Mitchell, David, *Schools and Classes for Exceptional Children*, Russell Sage Foundation, New York.

The progress made in recent years in perfecting plans of school organization by means of which children in any given school system might be promoted with varying degrees of rapidity and on the completion of different amounts of work is quite as gratifying and commendable.<sup>2</sup>

It is not necessary to suggest that segregation affords many practical advantages to so called "normal" children (from whose classes many of them have been removed) as well as to the variants or sub-deviates themselves. Nor is it necessary any longer to defend the practice against the objections of those who once regarded it as un-American and undemocratic. It must be at once obvious to all intelligent citizens that equality of educational opportunity does not necessarily imply identity or even similarity of educational opportunity and that it is in the interests of both society and the individual that these special provisions should be made. Any educational program which is truly democratic must endeavor to guarantee to every educable child the fullest measure of spiritual freedom which is for him attainable—regardless of whether society has designated him as a genius or a "supernormal" or has placed upon him the stigma of "dullard," "laggard" or "subnormal."

#### A MANY-SIDED CURRICULUM

The program of school studies and activities should be so many-sided as to show equal deference to the tastes and interests and needs—vocational and cultural—of all.

Much of what has been said under the previous heading would apply with equal force in support of this proposition. Preparation for participation in the ever increasingly complex social life of our times demands a training as wide as life itself. Any intelligent discussion of the "essentials" of education must be based on a clear recognition of two fundamental facts; first, that no traditional course of study, no branch of learning, no type of training, no "discipline," may properly be regarded as an essential in education in twentieth century America—no matter how important it may have been at any previous period in history or among any other people—unless it meets some distinctly human need in the life of the individual or of society; second, that the individual's and

<sup>2</sup>See Holmes, W. H., *School Organization and the Individual Child*. Worcester, Mass.

## INTRODUCTION

society's needs must to an ever increasing degree be supplied by the ministry of the expert, the professional, whose specialized knowledge and technical training may never be regarded as the common essentials in the educational equipment required of all. A clear recognition of these facts would lead to several important results:

First. In the elementary school we should omit much of the traditional subject-matter—not whole branches of study, but parts of them—which belongs to the field of the specialist or which for other reasons no longer functions in our new social order. If this were done we should have ample time and opportunity to introduce much new subject-matter which has large social value. We must first trim the dead limbs from the tree of knowledge.

Second. In the secondary school we should surely place a larger emphasis upon vocational training in the non-professional callings. Is it not true that all education of adolescents worthy of the name has ever been predominantly vocational in its purpose even for the small number who until recently monopolized the advantages of the secondary school? And is it not equally true that for the great majority of men and women—in all the callings of life—the truest happiness and the broadest and most genuinely democratic culture has ever been attained through intelligent and willing participation in some form of socially useful vocational activity? It has already been well demonstrated in at least a few places that the more nearly the secondary school approximates the spirit of a splendidly organized coöperatively managed work shop the more genuinely cultural is its discipline and the more certainly continuing is its influence on most of those who participate in its activities.

Third. In the field of higher professional education we should no longer limit full recognition to the so-called learned professions of law, medicine, and divinity. It is surely open to serious question whether under the conditions of modern life the lawyer can render society as significant service as the engineer, whether the physician can relieve human misery as effectively as the sanitarian can prevent it, or whether the minister can forestall moral and spiritual disaster as successfully in most instances as the teacher can. Society still needs and always will need the services of the "learned" professions, but their ministries alone will not suffice. Happily our state uni-

versities and even many of our privately endowed colleges of liberal arts are no longer, through the subtle influence of a "regular" course, guiding into one line of professional pursuits men and women preëminently fitted by native gifts and by acquired tastes for some other. A score of new professions are opening the doorway of opportunity for multitudes of young men and women to render large human service and the day is fast coming when no institution of higher learning chartered for the service of a democracy will wish to enforce purely traditional requirements or arbitrary standards in such manner as to close this door in the face of worthy young people who have come from public high schools which are not—and never ought to be—primarily "college preparatory" institutions.

Each of the several articles included in Part I of this volume was written to illustrate the extent to which the social viewpoint has come to dominate in theory and in practice some one or more aspects of American education in all grades of schools and in all types of educational institutions. The shifting of points of emphasis in the curriculum of public education and the number of opportunities offered by the more flexible organization of the best schools for larger participation in the common social interests of modern life furnish ample evidence that schools of all grades are making a willing response to the demands of twentieth century democracy.<sup>3</sup>

#### NO SEGREGATION OF SOCIAL CLASSES

The school system should be so organized as not to encourage or even permit the segregation of social classes and should be so conducted as not to exemplify an undemocratic control of student activities.

In defense of the first of these propositions it may be said that the deep cleavage between the social classes in the life of adult society—the rich and the poor, the learned and the unlearned, the members of the "best families" and "common folks," the working and the leisure groups, the orthodox and the dissenter—at once suggests by contrast that the school is exerting a far-reaching influence in promoting during the childhood period that social solidarity, that large human sympathy and common brotherhood, which is the essence of true democracy. The American school is undoubtedly

<sup>3</sup> See Lewis, William D. *Democracy's High School*. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York.

one of the very best loved social institutions of modern times and chiefly, it would seem, because it has broken down so many of the artificial barriers between social classes. So successful has our public school system generally been in this respect that the term "common school" is no longer a term of reproach but rather a badge of honor. The time has indeed come when every private school must contribute to democracy as well as to academic efficiency if it is to command general approval even among the social class primarily responsible for its support. Every child of the republic must be effectively taught to know and *trained to feel* that neither the rank nor antiquity of his ancestors, nor his wealth or personal gifts nor any other accident of fortune can command for him the respect of his fellows; that this prize can be won only by personal merit.

With respect to the second contention it should be observed that no matter how fine the ideals which determine the spirit of control there still is need for eternal vigilance on the part of school authorities lest a small clique within the student body should unwittingly exemplify "boss rule" in the conduct of student activities. And every teacher should make conscious efforts every day and every hour to promote among students that self control which is the crowning individual achievement of a free people. School authorities and teachers should never deceive themselves with the belief that a school organized like an absolute monarchy can be made an effective means for instruction and training in the principles of democracy.

#### CENTRAL AND LOCAL SCHOOL CONTROL

The administration and control of our educational systems should be vested jointly in central and local authorities and the highest intelligence and best judgment of expert and layman should be brought to bear on the formulation and execution of general educational policies.

The form and spirit of the official control of schools furnishes a topic the intelligent discussion of which will always be vital to the interests of democracy. At the time of the educational revival in New England almost one hundred years ago it was generally believed that the decadent condition of public school sentiment was due to the fact that the control of schools had fallen into the hands of exclusively local and lay authorities. There has been a progress-

ive tendency since then to centralize authority in the control and administration of schools and to place the conduct of schools and school systems, state, municipal, and rural, under the supervision of experts or professionally trained leaders. That this has on the whole resulted in much improvement of educational conditions must be obvious; that it is fraught with some dangers there can be no doubt.

It is argued that centralization of authority promotes efficiency by developing uniformity of educational policy and administrative practice over large areas, that it permits the collective wisdom of the larger group to control the actions of the smaller group, that it guarantees some continuity of policy and that it makes possible the development of the numerous types of educational experts without whose guidance and supervision progress cannot be assured.

On the other hand the opponents of centralized control and administration present some indictments which must not be too lightly dismissed. They say it lacks adaptability to meet the needs of communities differing widely in density of population, in industries, and in economic and social needs; that it uniformly results in a waning of popular interest; that it diminishes the possibilities of experimentation with new types of education; and that after a time it tends to entail the evils of a bureaucracy.

That these advantages and disadvantages of centralization follow in turn is a matter of common observation in many states and local communities; that a complete return of the administrative control of schools to local and lay authorities would be even more disastrous is equally obvious.

The complete exercise of a given function may be divided between two agencies, one of which represents the relatively expert and centralized aspect of administration, the other the more democratic and local. According to conditions the initiative will be with one or the other of these agencies. . . .

Another system of correctives to centralization is that to be found in the existence of bodies which, in the exercise of more or less localized functions, reflect public opinion, inform official and centralized agencies, and in turn, through the exercise of these powers, are themselves enlightened and have their appreciation of the general system of administration enhanced. . . .

Lay agencies and commissions, temporary or permanent, should be developed widely to represent local sentiment, to study administration and finally to express public opinion.

Commissioner Snedden of Massachusetts suggests a rational solution:<sup>4</sup>

The several articles included in Part II of this volume were written—in most instances—to illustrate by concrete example several types of non-official coöperating agencies, whose activities stimulate local interest and prompt local enthusiasm, and whose discussions are enlightening to central and local authorities charged with the official control of public education. Upon such non-official community organizations and auxiliary school societies as these we must depend to keep alive the spirit of democratic control of public education when the forms of such control have passed.

#### EDUCATION IN THE POST-SCHOOL PERIOD OF LIFE

All the educational agencies of the local community, of the state and of the nation should be brought to bear upon the post-school education of both adolescents and adults.

That education—in the large meaning of the term—is the greatest single human need, that it may be secured during the hours of labor as certainly as during the hours of leisure, that it may result from well directed toil as surely as from the study of books, that it is not entirely dependent upon schools and colleges and organized institutions of learning, that it is a life-long process and the most certain means by which men may become free, have come to be cardinal doctrines among thoughtful people. That so many capable men and women in our day are devoting their time and energies to the multiplication and direction of agencies in great variety—official and non-official—for the promotion of the education of all people, adults as well as children, furnishes the best possible evidence that as a nation we are seeking to realize our spiritual inheritance.

The recent rapid growth in the number and variety of continuation schools and the widening scope of their service especially to adolescents; the larger participation of university, college and technical school authorities in the education of non-collegiate groups at centers far removed from seats of learning and in subjects other than the standard courses offered by these institutions on the

<sup>4</sup> See Snedden, David. *Educational Readjustment*, Chapter X. Houghton, Mifflin Co., New York.

campus; the extension activities of state departments of education as exemplified by the recent developments in Massachusetts in the establishment of a University Extension department or division under the direction and control of the State Board of Education; the establishment of scores of non-academic institutions offering correspondence-study courses of a high grade and in a great variety of technical subjects and enrolling hundreds of thousands of students from all the walks of life; the growing tendency among city school officials to throw school buildings open to community uses for the special promotion of the education of the adult population by providing lectures, concerts, moving pictures, etc., at public expense and under public school direction and supervision as in New York City; the public presentation in city and in country of oratorios, dramas and historical pageants in which the whole community may participate; the farm and home demonstrations of the possibilities of improvement in rural economic, social and living conditions by agents of the state and federal governments; the organized efforts to bring good music, art and literature within the reach of all classes everywhere and the participation of the municipal, state and federal governments in the promotion of these objects; the multiplied activities of official agencies local, state and national in the promotion of adult education through official exhibits and reports and through educational propaganda; the active participation of college and university experts in conferences for the improvement of civic conditions and the enlargement and enrichment of our national program of education all bear witness to the increasing intelligence of all classes and to the growing faith of a free people in the ministry of public education.

The fifteen separate articles in Part III of this volume describe each in turn some special aspect of this comprehensive movement for the extension of educational facilities among adolescents and adults after their school days are over. It is most inspiring to read these articles and be made to realize how many thoughtful men and women in the great industrial pursuits, in factories and mills and mines and shops, in stores, on railroad trains and elsewhere in the crowded marts are, under the inspiration of this movement, increasing their vocational efficiency while pondering great thoughts, profound principles of life and conduct, gleaned from books; and to contemplate how many there are who in the silent hours of the night

are mastering the world's great literature and philosophy and science. Each of these contributions not only tells its own story effectively and interestingly but gives in passing many suggestions of possible enlargement of the scope of extension activities and many indications of growing enthusiasm for the whole movement. No other one of the "new possibilities in education" is more vital to the interests of democracy than the nation-wide attempt that is now being made to keep alive the spirit of youth and progress among all classes of the adult portion of our population and no other single educational enterprise is likely to be more uniformly successful and popular in the immediate future.<sup>5</sup>

#### CONCLUSION

Education—using the term in no narrow or pedantic sense—is the chief business of a democracy. Because it comprehends every human interest and may be made to minister to every human need it must be made accessible and free. It is not alone for the gifted nor for any special or privileged class. For most people (above the elementary grades) it must be predominantly vocational, in order that for them it may be truly cultural. All professional training must aim at social service. Education must be controlled by all the people in the interests of all the people, and it must be a continuing, life-long, process. Thus only may we as individuals and as a nation come into full possession of the spiritual inheritance of a free people.

\*See Perry, A. C. *The Extension of Public Education in the United States*. United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

## APPRECIATION OF MUSIC, LITERATURE AND ART AS A SOCIAL AIM

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One of the most fundamental factors in the furtherance of unity in our national life is the development of a popular taste for music, literature and art. Such a taste furthers this national unity both through the promotion of the common culture which is essential to a truly social democracy, and through the creation of a common pride in national aesthetic achievement that constitutes one of the finer phases of patriotism. In a socially unhomogeneous republic such as ours, each of these means to national unity must supplement the other. A common culture confined to appreciation of universal literature and art can promote a social intercourse between groups otherwise segregated by nationality, specialization and mode of life, without strengthening the emotional appeal of national aesthetic achievement. Aesthetic education confined to students in a particular type of institution or course of instruction made so technical as to repel or to reject all who are not naturally artistic, however strongly it may emotionalize national achievement, makes of the more broadly educated class an aristocracy in aesthetics as well as in learning. If our composite American people is to become a whole people, democratic, socially homogeneous, and politically homogeneous because socially homogeneous, each citizen must be made a lover not only of music, literature and art universal, but of American music, American literature and American art.

Our boys and girls should not be taught that there is no such thing as American literature or that there are no great American artists and composers. Even foreign-born Americans, whatever pride they feel in the aesthetic triumphs of the fatherland, should be proud of the contributions their compatriots have made to the aesthetic side of American life since they together came as immigrants to our shores. It is America that inspires the foreign-born genius; it is in America and for America that he labors, and it is the

recognition of Americans that is winning him renown. But after all, that art is most strongly American which, in addition to being "made in America," expresses our national spirit and emotionalizes our national features and characteristics. Where its appeal is powerful enough to add to the patriotism of childhood and youth in place of borrowing from it an interest which it otherwise lacks, it should form a conspicuous part of aesthetic training.

#### THE BAR TO AESTHETIC OPPORTUNITY

However, the most fundamental contribution of aesthetic training to citizenship and democracy is the common and intelligent love of the beautiful which makes possible the finer forms of social intercourse and is essential to the most manysided enjoyment of individual leisure. Curiously enough it is in a free system of public education rather than in prohibitive material and social conditions, that aesthetic enjoyment finds its real limit. The only obstacle which still stands in its way is a lack of that good taste and manysided interest which education alone can develop. The bar to an appreciation of the beautiful no longer lies in absence of opportunity that socially and economically limited environment denies.

On the one hand, individual leisure, both in the sense of shortened hours of employment and of multiplication of periods assigned to rest and recreation, is steadily increasing. On the other, every form of aesthetic enjoyment is being brought within the reach of all. Every type of book can be cheaply bought. Free libraries, local and circulating, make it possible to read the most expensive books for the price of a couple of street car tickets or postage stamps. The world's greatest pictures are reproduced in penny prints. Through a miracle which we do not as yet fully understand the whole world of nature and of art, so far as it is expressed in sound and in color, however distant in time or space, can be faithfully and dramatically reproduced through the phonograph and the moving pictures. Dress can be made as harmonious and becoming in chintzes and calicoes as in the wardrobe of a princess, while the laborer can afford to gratify his taste in the furnishing of his cottage more completely than the millionaire can express his artistic cravings through his architects and decorators. We are potentially a truer democracy in aesthetics than in economics or politics. We are aesthetically undemocratic only in our education.

**TECHNIQUE UNDEMOCRATIC: APPRECIATION DEMOCRATIC**

To be sure, a system of public education offers equal opportunity to every future citizen to become an artist. But opportunity in the material sense is conditioned by a peculiar sort of ability possessed by the chosen few. Until recently the boy who could not learn to write a poem or an essay or even to comprehend and remember the technique which makes literature an art was denied the story-telling, the dramatization, the unalloyed enjoyment of selected masterpieces impressively interpreted, that would make him a lover of literature in a variety of forms and through a multitude of interpreters. Until the coming of the phonograph, the teaching of music in the school has had for its aim singing by rote, without even the possibility of teaching the pupils to identify and enjoy the songs and themes of the great composers and to feel the thrill of symphony and opera. Even now, the great majority of pupils in the ordinary school are wasting their time in a hopeless effort at self-expression through brush and pencil possible only to the artistic few, when each one of them with a normal sense of form and color could be surely taught to love nature, to appreciate beautiful pictures, to select artistic ornaments and utensils and to wear appropriate and becoming dress. The late Dr. Harris, former United States Commissioner of Education, was wrong when he insisted that we would become artistic in our industrial products when the introduction of drawing into our public schools should develop workmen capable of artistic design. We now know that our workmanship and our merchandise will not become artistic until our people are well enough educated aesthetically to enjoy and to purchase the simple and the beautiful.

Whether in literature, painting or music, art is essentially aristocratic. Aesthetic training, on the contrary, being possible for all, results in a common love of the beautiful which must be added to common opportunity for its enjoyment before America can become aesthetically democratic. Those tendencies and practices in the teaching of music, literature and art that emphasize the development of aesthetic appreciation, therefore, will be most helpful in pointing the way to the adjustment of the material and method of instruction to the aesthetic demands of social life in a republic.

Curiously enough, it is the irresistible movement toward specific preparation for life, bitterly resented by lovers of culture, that is most largely responsible for this changing emphasis. To them the social aim means vocation. Confusing aesthetics with general training in the sense of discipline and generally useful habits, they have failed to see that every step toward more intensive academic study is a step away from literature, music and art, while the social aim, on the contrary, makes definite preparation for leisure an end in itself, rather than a by-product of formal study. A glimpse at some of the definite ways in which appreciation is being taught in representative schools will serve not only to show how far the social movement is furthering democracy in culture, but to illustrate concretely some of the local conditions and distinctions already discussed.

#### THE OVER ANALYSIS OF THE LITERARY MASTERPIECE

In the field of literature, so long as the four years of high school English were largely confined to the technical analysis of a few masterpieces as wholes, appreciation suffered not only through failure to develop interest in a variety of writers and forms of literature adequate to individual tastes and moods, but often through the creation of a distaste for exhaustive literary study, for the masterpieces exhaustively studied, and for the general literature of which they served as types. Any mode of study that turns attention from the masterpiece or passage as an emotional whole to the meaning of petty details and even to the technical means through which the emotion is produced, lessens appreciation and enjoyment. If appreciation is to become universal and many-sided, the study of artistic technique, whether in literature, music or art, must be confined to special schools or elective courses, except in those phases that can be so readily developed and become so much a matter of course, as not only to avoid interference with emotional appeal, but to be a part of it and to make it intelligent.

Dramatization, for example, especially in the earlier school grades where pupils with minimum of preparation and costume or as a spontaneous exercise take the parts of various characters in their story-books, is being made in hundreds of schools a means to appreciation of what is most fundamental in dramatic art.

Not only is this technical analysis being lessened or abandoned

in high school and grammar school, but throughout the entire school course. In its place, a number of factors almost wholly aesthetic, or at least non-technical, are uniting to create a many-sided love of literature. Story-telling by primary school teachers and through phonograph records; the impressive reading by teacher or expert of books and poems, which will not be followed by composition writing or quiz; dramatization, where pupils with minimum preparation and costuming, take the parts of various characters in their story-books; school plays, which through double or triple castes, ensure general participation in dramatic activities; the reading of several primary school readers each year in place of one; the encouragement of individual reading through school libraries and the posting or circulation of lists of books suitable for children of various ages; the circulation by the school of such lists among parents and the committees that purchase books for Sunday school libraries; the requirement that pupils shall read a limited number of books from a list embracing a great variety; the reaction in the grammar school grades from the critical reading of two or three masterpieces to the reading of miscellaneous selections from all forms of literature as was the case with the older school readers; the modification of college entrance requirements in English to permit the substitution of evidence of wide reading or broad literary interests for mastery of technique; all these practices are combining to create a popular taste for what is beautiful in verse and in prose.

#### CULTIVATION OF THE LOVE OF MUSIC

In music, as in literature, democratic culture demands a love of music in a variety of forms—especially in the forms which require a cultivated ear. Everybody loves some form of music or other, but confined to a brass band, ragtime melodies, fox trots and one-steps, or even the ordinary sort of hymns and Sunday school songs, music cannot be regarded as cultural. Still the beginnings of musical culture lie outside the school. The noblest music has been adapted to sacred song and remains as a spiritual possession of the people in common with the meaner melodies that are more vulgar in religion than in art. Themes from the masterpieces and songs that are themselves masterpieces are sung in the home, played in the theater, or whistled by the street Arab. But

in spite of this universal singing and playing, we lack as a people the sense of discrimination which finds greater pleasure in the artistic than the mediocre. It is not that a love of ragtime and of oratorio can not co-exist. Each is a form of self-expression adapted to changing mood. But culture demands not only a response to the sensuous in rhythm and harmony, but an intelligent and sympathetic comprehension of the music which through the genius of the master expresses the finer imaginings, emotions and aspirations of the human soul, or miraculously interprets and emotionalizes human experience. This involves something more than ability to sing or to perform on piano or violin and something less than training in musical technique.

Probably Dr. Flexner is right in his suggestion that "all children should at least endeavor to learn some form of instrumental music" even though he used it as a hypothetical illustration of possible forms of educational compulsion. All children should also be "made to sing." The mediocrity of skill that usually results is in itself a form of individual enjoyment and self-expression that does not necessarily interfere with appreciation. Since part singing, school orchestra, and even inartistic vocal and instrumental solos make the enjoyment of music more active and social, they should form a part of public education. Now that the phonograph is making us more than ever dependent upon music in which we have no part, it is especially significant that almost 50 per cent of the two hundred thousand pupils in four hundred American high schools are given training in chorus singing, 50 per cent of the schools give some credit toward graduation for chorus work, and two hundred and thirty-eight high schools have orchestras, though but a third of them allow any credit for orchestral service. The early giving of school credit for properly supervised private instruction in music by such school systems as those of Berkeley, California, and Chelsea, Massachusetts, and more recently by those of Pittsburgh and Hartford, may constitute the first step toward the teaching of instrumental music in the public school.

While not necessary to an appreciation of good music, school singing intensifies it for the patriotic songs, folk songs and lyrics that are rapidly taking the place of exercise and rote. On the other hand, it is hostile to appreciation only when it is confined to elementary technique. Mr. Foresman's utilization of the phono-

graph in the teaching of vocal music by giving for the pupil's imitation, marvelously trained voices and perfectly played instruments in place of the halting notes of an unskilled teacher, and his linking of the scale with masterpieces of beauty, have transformed the **rote** lesson itself into a means to appreciation.

The chief sin of the school, however, in the teaching of music has been the omission of work directly planned to develop appreciation. In the special report on "Music in the Public Schools," made by Mr. Earhart of Pittsburgh at the request of United States Commissioner Claxton, only twenty-four among six hundred and thirty-one high schools had courses in musical appreciation and but forty-nine in the history of music.

Unlike the influence of uniform college entrance requirements in English, appreciation has not been sacrificed to a technique required of all. Music has been taught only in its more elementary phases and almost solely in the elementary school. Even in the college, the champions of its traditional culture have strangely enough been satisfied to leave symphony, grand opera and oratorio to individual taste and opportunity. Its formal courses have been almost wholly confined to advanced technical training open only to the specialist, while its glee clubs and orchestras are hardly open to the charge of elevating musical taste.

#### THE USE OF THE PHONOGRAPH

The introduction of the phonograph into the school and the multiplication of records which sympathetically reproduce most of the great masterpieces remove the real bar to the development of appreciation for what is finest in music in every period of education. The teacher who might read a passage from literature impressively is helpless to present a variety of musical selections. Coöperation from local musical artists, such as that given by the Combes Conservatory of Music to the Observation School of the University of Pennsylvania during the summer of 1908, is rarely practicable. Courses in musical appreciation based on the use of phonograph records are practicable for every kind of school, from the little red schoolhouse to the college class. Hundreds of victrolas or other forms of phonographs and thousands of records have already been introduced into American schools. Dayton, Ohio, has long had a victrola in every school, Los Angeles has eighty and

Trenton sixteen. The danger is that they will become little more than a source of amusement, with musical appreciation as incidental an aim as in the home itself. Fortunately the phonograph companies are themselves meeting this need with specially designed machines, records and courses, though educational experts must give the same serious study to this new movement as to other factors in the course of study. In the report made to the University of Wisconsin and the Department of Education by the State Music Committee, a course in music appreciation is included among those recommended to high schools having competent instructors in music. It is based upon Miss Faulkner's course planned for the Victor Talking Machine Company but advises the use of local artists and advanced music students to supplement mechanical musical instruments.

The work of this course is to study the form and structure of different kinds of music, to learn the leading composers and become familiar with many of the famous compositions, to study styles of various artists by means of the talking machine and to get an idea of good interpretation. Credit, one-fifth, each semester. This course is open to everyone who takes credit for private study.

Work such as this should begin in the first grade of the elementary school and continue through the last stage of instruction.

The college should do as much for music as it does for literature. An advanced general course in the history of music should be required to make or to keep students familiar with the school, nationality, period and individual characteristics of composers, supplemented by electives, required in various kinds of musical composition, as in various fields of literature.

And basal for this common culture and a part of it in every period of development should be a love of patriotic song and pride in American singers, instrumentalists and composers and their contributions to universal art.

#### APPRECIATION OF FORM AND COLOR

After all, it is perhaps in art in the field of form and color that the tendency toward aesthetic appreciation is most marked. Mr. Farnum in his recent report to United States Commissioner Claxton sharply contrasts the mechanical conceptions of drawing as a school subject held at the time of the Centennial Exposition of forty years ago with those of today. To be sure, art appreciation is set down

as but one among several fundamental aims and is generally subordinated to the "carefully guided practice" which is the "surest if not the only road" to visual discrimination without which "true appreciation of a work of art" is impossible. But "nearly every supervisor gives opportunity for practice study in the drawing course" and in the various means used to illustrate existing tendencies, art appreciation is given prominent place. It is not without significance that notwithstanding insistence upon actual work in drawing as the "surest road," the detailed work in appreciation given in certain of the illustrative courses is quite independent of "practice." In the high school department of the Ethical Culture School in New York City pupils who are not studying drawing are allowed to take the course in appreciation.

From the standpoint of aiding observation, correlation with manual training and some little contribution to appreciation that cannot otherwise be gained, a limited amount of work in drawing may be useful to all individuals. On the other hand, there are many other ways of teaching observation than through drawing, and all school studies that are not as highly specialized as advanced work in drawing itself should be, can be effectively taught without it. Here, as elsewhere, the expert in education must analyze and determine relative aims and values. Owing to the fact that the planning and supervision of art courses has been given over exclusively to specialists, there is the same added need for an open-minded study of values as in the case of the high school subjects.

But art appreciation is an aim that is largely independent of the development of skill and so far as the majority of the pupils are concerned, should, like literary and musical appreciation, be required throughout the school course with special emphasis of all that makes for the development of pride in American art. Strangely enough, the only course of study in which I happened to find an injunction for this special emphasis was in that of Salt Lake City. It is not a new sort of work that is needed but a more universal requirement of what is already done in many schools. Excellent reproductions of the great masterpieces can be obtained in penny prints. The study of pictures and sculpture with the aid of such books as John C. Van Dyke's *How to Judge of a Picture*, Miss Emery's *How to Enjoy Pictures*, Coffin's *A Child's Guide to Pictures*, must, therefore, not be sacrificed in the vain effort to teach all

children how to draw. The following "leading questions," for example, are used in Salt Lake City to increase appreciation of pictures and make it more intelligent.

The thought the artist aimed to present—the soul of the picture; the artist's ideal; wherein does the beauty of the picture consist; how far is the scene real, how far is it idealized; setting of the picture, city or country, indoors or outdoors; center of interest or main point, composition; source of light—what is told of natural phenomena, storm, wind, sunshine, temperature, etc. What have you to bring to the picture from your own knowledge of what others have said or written or painted or sung? Title, interpretation. Technique; how was the original picture made; by what process is the reproduction made? . . . Is there a something about the picture that cannot be expressed in words? Is that the quality that made it necessary to express it as the artist did? etc.

#### THE TECHNICAL ANALYSIS OF PICTURES

Unlike a masterpiece of literature, which loses its emotional appeal as a whole, if in its first impression attention is called to details of technique, a picture continues to be seen as a whole even when attention is directed to its parts and its characteristics. The picture is still there, each new beauty increasing the impression made by the whole. The story or poem is lost as a whole as soon as analysis begins. Hence while technical characteristics of a literary or musical masterpiece must be matter of course and therefore habitual before they can add to its emotional appeal, the technique of a painting may be studied in detail, during its initial presentation, without distracting attention from the impression as a whole. If so, the only objection to such questions as the following taken from the Denver course lies in their complexity:

What locality is represented; point of view; extent of realism, idealism. How expressed? By real or imaginary subjects, bearing in mind such principles as the following: simplicity; breadth; repose; unity; harmony; proportion; equilibrium; lines; relative tone values; variety; how secured; repetition; perspective, gradation, subordination, concentration, definiteness, contrast, color—dominant, analogous or complimentary harmony, warmth, coldness.

One thing is sure. Much that Mr. Farnum includes under the general head of "Application and Correlation" is an end in itself that should be realized and can be realized, whether drawing is taught or not.

Home decoration, the selection of furniture, rugs, pictures and ornaments, tasteful in themselves, appropriate to the kind of room and in harmony with each other, is taught in some schools through

model homes and color schemes, in others through the actual fitting up of rooms. The fact that a schoolhouse has beautiful and appropriate pictures upon its walls, or beautiful grounds and school gardens which the pupils help to maintain does not necessarily affect home life. In addition to such admirable lists of plants appropriate for the school grounds and pictures suitable for school-rooms as have been made by the Public School Art League of Worcester, Massachusetts, there should be lists of plants appropriate for particular parts of home gardens, and pictures suitable for different sorts and sizes of rooms, particular colors of wall paper and special nooks and niches. The planting of trees on the home grounds of pupils, selected by vote of the school and approved by parents, has been successfully tried by a teacher in Baltimore County, Maryland, in place of the ordinary arbor day exercises. When parents can be led to coöperate with the school authorities, such arbor days may lead the way to the making of rough drafts showing the harmonious arrangements of flowers, shrubbery and trees for individual front yards or lawns. By and by art teachers may visit homes to praise any artistic things they can discover and tactfully prepare the way for suggestions as to possible purchases and locations for the rooms of their pupils or for contributions made by the pupils to the home. Chicago school children are loaned picture frames appropriate to particular pictures, in much the same way that they are loaned good books. There is a sharp contrast between art work such as this and the actual *making* of all sorts of art objects, most of which become things of horror when given prominent and inappropriate space by admiring or self-sacrificing parents.

#### EFFECT OF INDUSTRIAL ART WORK

Indeed, the distinctly vocational or industrial trend, which applied art or drawing is taking in many high schools, is distinct from the development of appreciation, if not hostile to it. A few pupils are being taught to make jewelry, pottery and plaster casts, to bind books, to make dresses, hats, collars and bags, in place of all pupils being trained to *select* them. Where part of this work takes the form of domestic art and girls are taught to do their own hat-making and dressmaking, appropriateness and becomingness can be directly and effectively taught, but even here selection should not be ignored. More girls will buy their personal apparel

than will make it. This fact has been strikingly illustrated lately in York, Pennsylvania, where girls in continuation school classes showed little interest when given the opportunity to study dress-making and hat-trimming. In general the factory girl or the shop girl wishes her leisure time for recreation in which she wears the hats and the clothing she has earned the money to buy.

Even from the standpoint of self-expression, which has become the chief aim of drawing and painting, selection is far more fundamental than skill. A glaring wall paper, a miscellany of bric-a-brac, lamps or vases embossed and painted into caricatures of the beautiful, hats that are fashionable but unbecoming, ostentatious and flashy jewelry, conspicuous shoes, clothing that cries aloud to attract the passerby—all that is intimately personal, is so obviously expressive of the aesthetic self that whether or not one has personally made it is immaterial, unless lack of skill in making it is accepted as a partial apology for wearing it.

#### CONCLUSION

In short, whether in literature, music or art, the mass of individuals will always be consumers rather than producers. The creation of the beautiful and skill in its manifestation belong to the realm of specialization. Art is social only as it contributes to the happiness of society rather than of an esoteric cult, and democratic only where opportunity to acquire it is open to all who have more than common ability. It is only when aesthetic education seeks appreciation rather than skill and manifests itself in tasteful selection rather than artistic production that the fine arts can become part of a culture that is social and democratic because it is not only open to all, but possible for all and required of all. Examples of schools which emphasize various forms of appreciation have been more or less haphazardly chosen. Only a complete aesthetic survey of American schools can show the extent to which each community is contributing to these ends and give just credit for leadership and conspicuous achievement. Only scientific investigation can determine what materials and methods are most effective. But even a superficial glimpse at existing conditions and tendencies shows that education is so adjusting itself to its new aesthetic responsibilities that a democracy of culture made possible by cheap literature, the phonograph and the moving picture may soon come to play its part in the evolution of a truly democratic republic.

## SOCIAL TRAINING THROUGH SCHOOL GROUP ACTIVITIES

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Current educational practice is marked in very many localities by much attention to the social relations incident to the work of the school. More and more are teachers appreciating the educational possibilities of these social relationships. The major part of this paper is to be devoted to a presentation of some of the more important and suggestive attempts to secure really valuable results from school group activities. It may be proper, however, to state briefly, by way of introduction to what is to follow, the general principles on which the social values depend.

### THE INFLUENCE OF THE GROUP UPON THE INDIVIDUAL

It is a truism of social psychology that the individual is controlled to a certain extent by the group to which he belongs. This tendency to be influenced by the group pattern, or ideal, occurs not merely with adults but in an especially striking manner with children as they approach the teen period. This control of the group, while not always an unmixed blessing, may easily become a valuable educative agency. The evil of it would appear of course in those cases in which the group pattern chances to be a bad one, and also when, if ever, the youth is simply impressed with the social pattern with the result of suppressing his own individuality. Thus, while it may be a good thing for the boy or girl to be restrained from undesirable behavior by belonging to a group which does not approve of such a mode of action, it is good mainly in the proportion in which the youngster grasps the approved line of conduct as an ideal and, instead of merely obeying the mandate of the group, actively embraces the attitude expressed by his companions and finds in it genuine self-expression.

In other words, group control, to be really educative, must prove to be a stimulus to the self-activity of the individual, some-

thing that really arouses the individual to fruitful action where he would otherwise have been inactive. If the group control is exerted along broadening and profitable lines it will have much real educational value for every person who participates. This educative value obtains wherever worthwhile groups are formed, outside of school as well as within. With the activities of children outside of the school we shall not here attempt to deal. It is sufficient to say that the literature describing the doings of gangs, clubs, etc., is replete with illustrations of the educative values of group activities.<sup>1</sup> We shall here pass at once to the problems of this sort presented by the school.

All school life, with its classes, its study-room groups, its playground, its school spirit and its class spirit, is a continuous process of social education through group action. The educational values of these more informal school activities we may also pass over. It has been partly from a recognition of the power of the group, even though exerted quite without premeditation, to shape the character of the individual that many constructive thinkers and practical workers in the fields of both secondary and elementary education have sought to make more definite use of this social force. Another motive has undoubtedly been largely present in all such efforts, namely, the purely practical desire to hold within reasonable bounds the insistent social tendencies of young people. Social activities there will be, whether the teacher plans for them or not, and the impulse for much of the constructive development which has recently occurred is doubtless due to the need of facing the practical situation of a lot of embryonic social groups and *directing* their expression so there may be a minimum of undesirable consequences. However, be the causes what they may, the present-day school is rapidly coming to an appreciation of the educational significance of school activities of the social type.

#### TYPES OF ORGANIZATION FOR SOCIAL TRAINING

There is a wide range in the variety of efforts that are now being made to promote a valuable social life in the school. Many principals have been giving much patient attention to feasible ways

<sup>1</sup> See Gunckel, *Boyville*; Buck, *Boys' Self-governing Clubs*; Burkheimer and Cohen, *Boys' Clubs*; Puffer, *The Boy and his Gang*.

and means. A great deal of thought has been given to the proper administering of student activities in high schools.<sup>2</sup> Some high schools have teachers especially charged with the duty of supervising and developing the social activities of the students. As to specific types of development the following may be considered as inclusive of much that is being currently attempted:

1. The socialization of classroom work.
2. The development and supervision of group activities outside the classroom.
3. Student participation in school government.

The success, that is to say the educational value, of all such undertakings depends finally on the *esprit de corps* which may be expected to develop in the class or school and which will supposedly furnish a social stimulus for more energetic action on the part of the pupils along the lines planned and to some extent suggested by the school authorities.

#### THE SOCIALIZATION OF CLASSROOM WORK

We shall consider first the somewhat wide range of activities which may be included under the socialization of the work of the classroom. The purpose of all such efforts is to throw more responsibility upon the pupils for the conduct of their work, to teach them social coöperation and group spirit by making the work of the classes more of the nature of coöperative undertakings. In such a class the teacher and the pupils form a real social group, the teacher a leader and stimulator in the general group activity but leaving much to the initiative of pupils in the planning of the conduct of the class, in finding problems, and in methods of solving them.

PROFESSOR SCOTT'S EFFORTS.—One of the earlier efforts to develop and demonstrate the effectiveness of the group as a means of stimulating learning processes was that of Professor Colin Scott, described by him in detail in his *Social Education*. The essential features of Scott's plan consisted in giving opportunity to children (first of the third grade and later in various higher grades including high and normal schools) to organize on their own

<sup>2</sup> See Chapter XVI in Johnston's *Modern High School*, for a suggestive account of the problem and a suggested method of administering, prepared by Prin. Jesse B. Davis of the Central High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan.

initiative into small groups for the purpose of carrying on any activity which interested them jointly. For the younger children short periods during the school session were allowed for this "self-organized group work," as Scott calls it. The problems chosen by the children seem to have been rather definitely along the line of legitimate school interests. There were printing, cooking, photographic, dramatic and manual arts groups and others. The condition on which any self-constituted group was permitted to undertake work of its own choosing was that the work be approved by the teacher and quite definitely planned both as to method and time required by the children proposing it. Each project launched under these conditions was carried out by the children without interference by the teacher even to save it from threatened failure. The children learned to plan and to work coöperatively. They experienced and learned to overcome many of the real difficulties which are apt to develop in any group enterprise. The social training incident to this type of work had unquestioned value and the social motivation to intellectual effort and to manual dexterity made it a very effective method of "learning" in the narrower meaning of that term. In fact one cannot but feel, in reading the account, that in some respects the learning was *more effective* than that which occurs in formal class instruction.

**THE PARKER SCHOOL EXPERIMENTS.**—Another set of illustrations of the social and more narrowly educational values of group work may be found in a monograph entitled, "The Social Motive in School Work," issued by the faculty of The Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, in 1912. There are here given many significant illustrations of small children's capacity to plan and carry out group enterprises. A special part of the school yard was set aside as "investigation lane" for these group projects, which seem to have been mostly house building enterprises. The *Year Book* of this same school for the next year (1913) tells how groups of children assumed responsibility for the morning exercises and gives many illustrations of how these groups planned and carried out interesting demonstrations for the entertainment and instruction of their mates.

**HISTORY IN THE CHARLESTOWN, MASSACHUSETTS, HIGH SCHOOL.**—The projects thus far described have paved the way for the more definite socialization of class work by showing that group

work with a large amount of self-direction is not only possible but quite worth while, whether it be considered from a social or from a narrowly intellectual point of view. One of the earlier attempts at socializing class work is described by Miss Lotta Clark, a history teacher in the Charlestown, Mass., High School.<sup>3</sup> As this work of Miss Clark is well known it will be given only brief mention here but any reader who is unfamiliar with it would do well to consult the suggestive account of it given in Miss Clark's own words. In brief, the plan, which has been in operation for some thirteen years and has been adopted by other teachers in the same school, consists in the organization of the class into a parliamentary club, with chairman and secretary appointed by the class and changed at regular intervals. The recitations were made not in response to questions but were voluntary offerings. The class formed a coöperative group for the study of history in which not merely was the text studied but much outside material was brought in according to the differing interests and abilities of the members of the class. Thrown on its own initiative, the class made rapid progress, did the work thoroughly, and covered much more ground than had been covered by previous classes.

One of the marked characteristics of such group activity is its zestfulness, the energy displayed by the pupils in following up their self-imposed tasks. Teachers testify to their surprise at finding what such classes are capable of doing. Miss Clark says that she learned that "no teacher is equal to the dynamic force of the class before her." In most classes this dynamic force is slumbering because of the abnormal and artificial social conditions imposed upon them. Group work and group responsibility seem to awaken a response, an energy, a resourcefulness in pupils that seldom appears in the ordinary, formal, teacher-conducted recitation. In this connection, Miss Alice L. Marsh, at the conclusion of a suggestive description of her experience in socializing classroom activity, says, in commenting upon a surprising ability which had come to the surface in a boy in one of the groups, "I've a notion that Henry (and I might have added with truth, every boy and girl) has more in him than either you or I have ever succeeded in bringing out."<sup>4</sup> This is a common observation of those who have tried to utilize the

<sup>3</sup> "A Good Way to Teach History," *School Review*, 17: 255.

<sup>4</sup> "Socializing Influences in the Classroom," *The English Journal*, 5: 89.

group spirit and the social motive. Children are surprisingly resourceful and energetic when they are given a chance to do something for themselves.

ENGLISH IN THE EASTERN HIGH SCHOOL, DETROIT.—In the following paragraphs we give a condensed account of Miss Marsh's efforts to cultivate a social and coöperative spirit in her English classes in the Detroit Eastern High School. She first sought to arouse the friendly group spirit among the pupils by enlisting the help of the boys, under the direction of one or two especially capable ones, in the renovation of the rather shabby furniture of the classroom, and by having a social hour for the girls in which two were asked to present some facts from the life and work of Jane Addams. After taking several steps in the development of a social consciousness, she proposed to her five English classes that they organize as literary societies. These societies were conducted according to parliamentary usage.

The minutes of the literary societies stimulated the making of special reports, and I therefore kept my eyes open for points that would be of interest to different types of students. One student reported on a short but very thrilling story on the treatment of political prisoners in Russia. . . . This started two lines of research: one on "Prison Reform" and the other on "The Characteristics of the Russian People." The latter was managed by a young man, a Russian Jew, unusually intelligent, who had been in this country three years. His choice and arrangement of topics were fine. . . .

The two boys in charge of "Prison Reform" were of the type that not only manage to get their lessons and keep track of the progress of the recitation, but at the same time make life miserable for the teacher. I made them into a team and sent them to investigate the neighboring branch libraries. I gave them a hint about *Poole's Index* and *The Reader's Guide*. They came back jubilant the next day, having spent the previous afternoon in the quest. Their list included twenty-seven references, neatly arranged. . . . These two boys continued as chairmen, assigning topics and seeing to it that someone was ready to report each day.

We included debates in our work, discussing labor questions, municipal ownership of railways and kindred topics. . . .

The further work of these classes covers a considerable range of topics and gives evidence of much initiative on the part of the students. Among other things each class edited a newspaper as a means of vitalizing the work in old English and Scotch ballads.

The students organized among themselves. Five members of each class were chosen by ballot to act as the editorial staff. Each of these in turn selected

five students to work with him, in soliciting material and in building up some department of the paper. Under their strenuous efforts talent which I had never suspected came to light. They studied details and produced editorials on the outrages perpetrated by the Lowlanders, and kindred topics.

For each special ability there were opportunities for expression, joke columns, typewriting for those who knew how, artistic headlines from those skilled in lettering, cartoons and illustrations from the students gifted in drawing; the girls furnished the society notes.

The chairmen came to me and said there were some who had done little or nothing by way of coöperation. "Do you want me to interfere?" I inquired. "I should really like to have you see the whole thing through yourselves, if it were possible." What arguments were used or what persuasion was brought to bear on these delinquents I have no means of knowing, but eventually *all* had helped and the papers, "our" papers, were completed.

This account is quoted at some length to give some idea of the details of special phases. Miss Marsh in a letter writes further of the expansion of the socialized ideal the following year. The club idea spread to other classes and much attention is given to problems of civic and social welfare which the pupils are face to face with in their every-day life.

**COMPOSITION WORK IN SHORTRIDGE HIGH SCHOOL, INDIANAPOLIS.**—The following account of a socialized type of class work being developed in the Shortridge High School of Indianapolis is given through the courtesy of Mrs. Rose M. R. Mickels of the Department of English.<sup>5</sup>

The experiment herein described was made with a view to improving composition work. The lessons in literature were delightfully informal and inspiring, but composition classes were less successful. I therefore resorted to this plan, which I tried out in several classes, ranging from English III to English VII. What follows describes the work of an English VII class. This class numbered thirty. I divided the class into six groups of five pupils each. One member of each group was asked to act as presiding officer for that group.

On Monday of each week the six groups distributed themselves about the classroom and began work. The president called his group to order and inquired whether all had done the assigned work. If anyone was unprepared, the president informed me when I made my rounds. Then the members read to one another their work. This was commented upon, at first as to interest. I soon discovered that every member was eager to be found interesting. Themes of unusual interest were found and reported to me. They were later read in the class. The president

<sup>5</sup> Communicated by Mrs. Della McCurdy Thompson, of Shortridge High School, Adviser of Girls.

of the division heard criticisms on sentence structure and advised on doubtful points in punctuation, and other matters of form. At the close of the period he took up the themes belonging to his group for an inspection of the written work. His own theme he gave to the members of his own group in turn. The president's theme was expected to be a model, but members of the group were free to criticize it in any way it needed.

I spent the class hour in going from group to group. Sometimes a section would have something so good that it could hardly wait for my visit. The best things were read to me and points on which the groups could not agree were referred to me. I have found that the president is especially delighted when some member of a group who has not been a credit to it begins to improve. The whole group, indeed, exults in his success and is eager to have me know of his improvement. Sometimes I find in a group a certain error that the entire class needs to consider. When this happens I call attention and explain the point. The intimacy to which the pupils admit me is surprising and I find that this tones down my criticism. I can offer it as only one friend to another.

As this plan involves considerable extra work for the presidents I have recognized this by a slight addition to their term grades, but the extra credit, I think, affects their interest very little. They do the deed for the deed's sake.

We also kept a record of our outside reading. This furnishes us with a common interest, for when one finds an unusually good story or book, he naturally wants the group to share in his pleasure. This class read more in this term than any other class I have ever had.

I took up the written work about once a month, looked it over and graded it. I was surprised to find how little I had to correct in the way of faulty sentence structure, punctuation or spelling. This left me free to comment on other things, method of presentation, diction, etc. I never asked the members of the group to grade the papers they corrected. A pupil who was failing was reported to me privately by his president and I gave him at once such aid as I could. As a matter of fact we had but one failure in the class. He had had a long record of failures to which he added in this case, by leaving school before the end of the term.

I never asked the class how they liked the experiment. We had a number of visitors who were deeply interested in our work. When they wanted information I turned them loose among the class. I never asked them what they learned there, but they usually insisted upon telling me of the enthusiasm they found. At the close of the term a number of personal notes were placed on my desk. They had been written by the group presidents in behalf of their respective groups to thank me for the freedom and enjoyment our methods of work had given them. They said that the work had been unusually hard but that it had also been unusually stimulating and helpful. Several difficulties presented themselves, indeed one may see at a glance that the plan is far from perfect. It works better with older pupils. It is sometimes difficult to find the right students for leadership. It does not always cure ingrown laziness on the part of certain individuals. But it does what I expect it to do. It enables us to be mutually helpful and to accomplish even more in theme writing than was possible by the old method.

**THE PRINCIPLE APPLIED IN A GEOMETRY CLASS.**—One of the writer's former students has furnished him with an account of a self-conducted geometry class which showed the same spirit of initiative and ability to plan and push its work forward that Miss Clark found in her history classes. This class finished its text three weeks sooner than other classes had done and did besides much original and outside work of its own devising.

One morning I learned that a contest had been planned. The girl who made the neatest geometrically designed doily or centerpiece, and the boy who drew the best plan for the school grounds were each to receive pennants. The most interesting feature of this experiment was the class spirit. There was always a spirit of wholesome competition as well as a determination to stand by one another and give proper assistance to the weaker pupils, so that all might complete the course. One weak student dropped out of the class after trying in vain to do the work. This was a genuine disappointment to the other members of the class who had worked so hard to save her. Many times through the year the pupils expressed themselves very strongly in favor of having their other teachers adopt the plan used in this geometry class as a better means of getting them into the subjects. At the end of the semester one of the boys said that he considered the experience he got from the self-conducted geometry class as worth \$600.00 invested at 6 per cent interest, compounded annually.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT AND SUPERVISION OF GROUP ACTIVITIES OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM

These are naturally of the widest variety and afford even more opportunity than does the socialized class for individual initiative, leadership and social coöperation. We have already referred to the problem of supervision and as that phase is only indirectly connected with the present paper we shall say nothing further about it. Supervision is of course necessary that the best educative values may be realized. The social values are loyalty, lawfulness and coöperation. Besides this the members of such groups have their intellectual outlook broadened and enriched. In comparatively small schools some interesting work is being done to weld the school as a whole into a true social group. Miss Wilson, principal of the Crawfordsville (Indiana) High School, writes of her school as having the spirit of a large family. The girls are organized into a "Sunshine Club" which does much for the social interests of the school and of the community. The boys coöperate as honorary members. The "family reunions" of this school do much to keep alive the

spirit of social solidarity the influence of which upon the individual is marked.

**CLUB ACTIVITIES IN THE LINCOLN NEBRASKA HIGH SCHOOL.**—In the larger schools the subordinate groups are essential to the development of the social life. The vice-principal of the Lincoln, Nebraska, High School writes thus of their development of student activities:

The most extensive activity is the Nebraska Radio Association, a group of Lincoln High School boys who meet weekly, have parliamentary drill and discuss wireless telegraphy. They have at several of their homes some very complete and expensive wireless apparatus, so that they can listen to government messages from Tampa and other long distances. Many of these boys have become exceptionally skillful and could easily obtain positions with the government if they so desired. This is an interesting illustration of a practical intellectual benefit due largely to the coöperative activity of a self-organized group.

Another thing that we are doing in Lincoln High School is to divide all the students into "home-room" clubs. The student reports at this home room when he comes in the morning. Here the roll is taken and on Monday mornings they spend a forty-minute period in this home room. Each teacher may use this forty minutes as desired. In some rooms they use the time studying but in others they have organized clubs for special purposes, in one room for pleasure, in another for baseball, but the one I have in mind to especially tell you about is the one where they have organized a club for the purpose of raising money to assist needy students. In this club they are really doing something for somebody else and it brings about a democratic feeling in a work which benefits themselves in doing for others.

Then we have various high school organizations such as the Ciceronian Debating Society which meets bi-weekly for parliamentary drill and debate. During the year they also have parties and suppers and occasionally a dance. The largest organization is the Junior Civic League. In the High School this includes all the Freshmen. In the Grade Schools it includes all the upper grades. They study home civic conditions and several times a year they make excursions to various points of interest about the city for the sake of learning about their home town. A number of divisions of this league have started to do some special thing for their section of the city. I am enclosing a little paper, "The Civic Standard" which will give you some idea of what they are trying to do.\*

**STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS AT THE SIOUX CITY HIGH SCHOOL.**—In the Sioux City, Ia., High School among other student organizations there is one called the Hi-Y boys which, while organized by the secretary of the Y. M. C. A.,

is made up entirely of high school boys, not necessarily members of the Y. M. C. A. These boys meet every Friday evening at the high school at six o'clock where

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\* Quoted from a letter from Vice-principal J. J. Marshall, Lincoln, Neb.

they have a light luncheon in the lunch room for which there is a charge of 15 cents. They usually have a speaker for the occasion. Recently they had a "dad and sons' meeting" where every boy was expected to bring his father. This was very successful. Their motto is clean speech, clean living, clean athletics. This club of boys has done more to clean up athletics and to bring about a desire on the part of many boys for higher living than a group of men could do in years. Most of the boys have signed an agreement to refrain from cigarette smoking. While many have slipped back it has nevertheless been a lever which the club has used to help pull themselves away from the habit.

The girls' friendship club ought to promote cleaner living and cleaner thinking on the part of the girls and I think it will. The literary societies give our boys and girls opportunity to develop along declamatory and debating lines. The question has often been put to me by college professors who have had some of our students, "Why are your students so strong on their feet and so much more able to express themselves than students from many other high schools?" I have decided that this ability is largely due to the clubs.

Our work in student musical organizations tends to develop along lines that are a little higher than those developed in athletics and opens up a new vista to many who thought they had no musical ability whatsoever. Our school plays have the same effect. A number of boys who did very poor work in their studies before they took up music have become much better students since taking up this and other forms of group work. Athletics help to keep more of our boys in school. Many who would drop out at the end of the first year or who would flunk along semester after semester manage to pull through so long as they have the athletic goal before them.<sup>7</sup>

**OVER-SOCIALIZED HIGH SCHOOLS.**—One practical feature of all student social activities is that of their cost both in time and money. Their reasonable limitation in these particulars provides an important means of training for high school pupils. There is no doubt that the student activities of many high schools are excessive and this has caused some critics to raise the question as to whether they should not be suppressed altogether. On this point Principal McCowan, quoted above, has this comment:

I feel that there are, very often, over-socialized high schools. When I came to Sioux City six years ago the social organizations were running riot. Each organization was permitted to have as many social affairs during the school year as it pleased. There was no limit to the expense. Reports from the parents of some of the pupils brought out the fact that the social life of the high school was costing many of them twenty-five to thirty-five dollars a year. A parent in one case, who had a daughter in school, complained that her assessments and dues had amounted to twenty-five dollars. The expenses of the boys were naturally higher. For some of the parties given by the boys' clubs the assessment was five

<sup>7</sup> Quoted from letters from Principal J. S. McCowan, of the Sioux City, Iowa, High School.

dollars apiece, and two dollars was very common. Now, the annual expense to each member must not exceed two dollars. No assessments are permitted. Club parties used to cost \$250.00, now no club is permitted to spend more than \$55.00. I think the cause of the excesses lay in the fact there was no faculty supervision. Clubs used to be allowed to do exactly as they pleased without any suggestion from the authorities. Suggestions were resented. Some parents were forced to take their children from school because of the expense of the social life.

I think, however, that properly directed student activities are a very fine thing for American boys and girls. In order that they may have the greatest value, however, they must be properly directed and controlled or, instead of the results being good, they can be only bad.

**COMMENTS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS.**—In the following paragraphs are given the opinions of college students as to the benefits they derived from student activities in their high school days. It will be noted that they emphasize the value of the training in responsibility through self-directed enterprises and the tendency of such organizations to develop democratic coöperation among different types of students. These two points perhaps include much of the value of student activities.

The one social activity of my high school life which I recall as of most value was the senior class play. The entire responsibility for the play was taken by the class. They made their arrangements for a coach, for a theatre and for the advertising, all, however, subject to the approval of the principal. Every phase of the undertaking was discussed enthusiastically and without restraint by the whole class. We all gave our ideas and all had our parts both as individuals and as members of committees. Much democratic feeling was developed by these plays. One should also mention the awakening of the spirit of united effort and the subordination of the self-interests for the common good.

Another student writes of the business as well as literary experience she derived from work upon the school paper. The following account of the work of the literary societies in a school, while presenting nothing unusual, does illustrate the energetic way in which pupils take hold of the self-conducted enterprises.

One illustration of the coöperation that developed among the students of these societies is that of a "Fair" given by my society in one of the halls of the town on a Saturday. Money was needed by the high school for books for its library and each society contributed to the fund. For six weeks we prepared for this "Fair." Committees were appointed, each being responsible for some phase of the undertaking. Each student had some particular part at certain time. All helped to decorate the hall. Each borrowed furniture from some one in the community and was responsible for the care and return of it. The girls made

aprons and cakes and donated them to the society. The girls were divided into groups of three or four each one of which had to make at least one dollar's worth of sugar into candy.

Various other preparations are noted which need not be repeated. Every high school in the country could give such illustrations. Their value as a means of social training is unquestioned.

**EXPERIMENTS NOW IN PROGRESS.**—The limitations of time and space do not permit of the offering of much other material on student activities. In larger schools they are usually elaborately developed but they do not reveal any differences in principle from those in the smaller schools. The inquiries directed by the writer to persons interested in these things in high schools shows that in the main the teachers are absorbed in the rather insistent problems of sponsorship and general oversight and have not yet learned to evaluate the results or to measure them in any very definite way. All sorts of interesting experiments are today being tried out and when these are adequately reported we shall know much more that is worth while regarding the social-educational values of such types of effort.

#### STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL GOVERNMENT

Of this phase of group action we shall here say little. It has been widely advertised and discussed and represents, in the writer's way of looking at it, a very important character-forming influence. Group responsibility for a good school is fostered and the control of the group over the individual is well illustrated.

While there are many schools both elementary and secondary which are trying with success various forms of pupil-participation in school government, there is still a surprising ignorance of and prejudice against the idea in the minds of many school-men. No one movement accomplishes more for practical moral education than does this and moral education is admittedly the greatest need of American education today. When we reflect upon the social and moral needs of our school children we cannot but feel that an undue amount of time is being spent upon questions of administration and on courses of study which have little ultimate significance for character formation, the one great problem before our country at the present time.

## TRAINING IN THE SCHOOLS FOR CIVIC EFFICIENCY

BY J. LYNN BARNARD, PH.D.,

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Time was when a man could be a most efficient individual in his business or profession, in his church relationships, in all matters of personal concern, and at the same time be utterly inefficient or even conscienceless as a member of the body politic. Religion and politics were not to be mixed, nor were religion and business. But politics might become the handmaiden of business—especially big business! Democracy seemed to be breaking down, and most noticeably in our cities. Our reforms were spasms: our relapses were recoveries—returns to the normal order of things.

But this epoch, we believe, is slowly passing. The younger generation are learning to think straight and true in public matters, whether of city, state, or nation. They really want to be good citizens, and they are coming to see that "the test of good citizenship lies in the existence of an intelligent, continuing interest in the questions of good . . . . government." We are all learning that the supremest effort must be made to "combine efficiency with our popular sovereignty."

The press, the pulpit, women's clubs, civic associations, and finally the colleges,—all these and others have helped to start what promises to be a veritable tidal wave of civic interest and enlightenment. Have the schools been doing their part in this training for civic efficiency? If not, are they awake to the fact and laying plans for the future? The first question is easily answered, and with an emphatic negative which has no need of proof. The second query is as readily met, and with an affirmative the proof of which it is the purpose of this brief article to present.

Since any education which has the remotest bearing on life is an indirect preparation for the performance of civic duties, it is obvious that only direct preparation for the meeting of civic obligations is here to be considered.

Formal instruction in civics seems to have come into our schools

soon after the Civil War, in the form of a clause-by-clause memorization of the Federal Constitution, interspersed with salaries and terms of office of government officials. Probably intended at the beginning to inculcate a spirit of nationality, as opposed to states rights, in course of time it came to have no justification whatever and simply lingered on till something vital should come to take its place. In the conservative East it has had to wait for nearly half a century!

A course so lacking in interest for pupil and teacher alike, and so valueless as a means of real civic training, could hardly fail to be attacked from all sides. The National Education Association, the National Municipal League, the American Political Science Association, the American Historical Association, and the National Bureau of Education—not to mention others—have recently joined in the onslaught. And the day of deliverance is at hand for long-suffering youngsters and apathetic teachers. Fortunately, coöperation between these various organizations has been effected and much valuable time saved.

#### THEORY OF THE NEW CIVICS

In order that what has been worked out in this coöperative fashion may be understood, it may not be amiss to state briefly the reasoning that underlies the New Civics.

The object of teaching, generally, may be stated as twofold: first, cultural, to acquaint the child with his environment; second, practical, to train for citizenship. There are various sorts of environment, each with its corresponding field of study. Among others is that man-made, social environment which we term the community, and the study of which we call civics. The community has been well defined as a group of people in a single locality, bound together by common interests and subject to common rules or laws. And the various types of community include the home, the school, the church, the shop, the state. A citizen is anyone who participates in community action, sharing its privileges and properly subject to a share in its duties and responsibilities. The good citizen is one who manfully shoulders his obligations as a citizen and performs his part well as a member of his community. All are citizens, whether young or old, for all are members of one or more of these communities—always including the state.

Civics, then, on its cultural side is the study of that social environment we call the community; on its practical side it is a training for efficient community service and particularly in that type of community which we term the state. And this leads us to the conclusion that civics as a school subject includes both a curriculum of studies and a curriculum of activities. How far away this leads us from the old-time memory endurance test can well be imagined.

The steps in this newer sort of civic training would naturally be: first, to secure a fund of practical information about civic matters; second, to arouse interest in the problems studied; third, to stimulate to such coöperation with community agencies as the maturity and experience of the pupil enables him (or her) to offer,—for, be it remembered, the "good citizen" must be *good for something*. Equally patent, it would seem, but so long overlooked in the teaching of civics, is the method of approach. From the near to the remote, from the simple to the complex, from the concrete to the abstract, from function to structure, from local to state and national, from matters of current interest to those of origin and growth,—how else than by this method—at once scientific and "commonsensible"—can the live interest of the boy and girl be roused and their wills be strengthened to lend a hand wherever they can? And this making of good-for-something citizens—of city, state, and nation—is the final goal of the New Civics.

#### A PRACTICAL PROGRAM FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

And now for a practical program of civic education for our young citizens. As it is developing over the country for the elementary schools, this program is one in aim and in point of view; while in method and in detail two main types are emerging, to one or the other of which all others are likely to conform—until such time as the two plans shall be happily blended.

The first of these methods, splendidly exemplified by Indianapolis, one of the pioneer cities in genuine civic training, makes no attempt to teach civics as a separate subject before the last year of the grammar school. It depends, rather, upon so correlating the various studies—including not only geography and history, but even arithmetic—that all alike shall contribute their share to the civic education of the young person.

The second method, just going into operation in Philadelphia,

does not hesitate to label its civic instruction as such, throughout all the eight years of the elementary school. It deliberately takes for its own the distinctively civic content to be found in any of the other subjects of the elementary curriculum, and builds up a unified structure.

A most interesting account of the former plan, written by Mr. Arthur W. Dunn, one of its authors, may be found in *Bulletin No. 17, 1915, United States Bureau of Education*. The writer of this paper takes the liberty of giving an outline sketch of the latter plan, with which he is more familiar since he has helped to formulate it.

In the early grades the fundamental civic virtues,—obedience, helpfulness, courtesy, punctuality, and the like,—are inculcated by the use of stories, songs, games, memory gems and dramatization. The aim is threefold: to establish right habits of thought and action in the children; to project these habits into the home and into their other relationships as well; to show the pupils how all community life is based on the embodiment of these virtues in each member of society.

Later, the pupil is brought in touch with a wider community than his home and his school, and now he learns of the services that are being rendered in a personal way to each family represented in the class, by the milkman, the grocer, the baker, the plumber, the doctor, the dressmaker, and others. Then follow the services rendered by corporate agencies, such as the policeman, the fireman, the street-sweeper, the garbage-collector, the ashes-collector; by the trolley car, the telephone, the water supply, gas and electricity, the sewage system, etc. The civic virtues considered in the earlier grades are here seen to be exemplified to a marked degree, and the reciprocal duties and obligations resting upon the young citizens of the class toward those who render these community services are practically emphasized. Accessible educational and other public institutions are visited and reported upon,—not even forgetting the places for suitable amusement and recreation.

Next follows a year devoted to the city as an industrial unit. The great industries (manufacturing and commercial) which have helped make the city famous are first considered, and visits are made to these plants whenever practicable. The various occupations which may be followed by young people, and even by older ones, are then discussed, using simple descriptive "write-ups" and other

illustrative material. The superior economic position to be gained by those who remain longer in school is especially made plain, both as to initial wage and as to chances of advancement.

The work of the last two years is based on an attempt to see how the various elements of community welfare—such as health, protection of life and property, education, recreation, civic beauty, communication, transportation, wealth—are secured through various public and private agencies. This necessitates a practical insight into the functions performed by various governmental departments, bureaus or commissions, aided by numerous private associations and committees. As a final round-up, the organization and functions of government are re-surveyed in such manner as to differentiate clearly between city, state, and nation.

Throughout all the later years of the elementary school any textbook that may be used is supplemented by trips to see the various agencies at work, followed by reports and class discussions. And gradually a civics laboratory is being evolved, including laws and ordinances, reports, plans and charts, maps, models, and even samples of all sorts, along with photographs, lantern slides and other illustrative material.

It will be recalled that "the shop" (industry) has been mentioned in this paper as one of the types of community of which young people may expect, sooner or later, to become members; and that, accordingly, they should prepare to perform their part well as members of this particular community. From this it follows that a brief vocational survey, of a more advanced type than that already described, must soon be included in this course of study. It will be designed to continue the practical occupational guidance begun in earlier years, so that a fair notion may be gained of what lies ahead of those who leave at this time and of the greater industrial possibilities in store for those who go on and complete a high school course. Moreover, as a sort of by-product, the boys and girls should acquire a profound respect for intelligent hard work, no matter what the trade or profession followed, and a contempt only for laziness and inefficiency.

But this "vocational survey" will do more than that, if it fulfills its highest function. It will stamp upon the impressionable minds of these rapidly maturing young persons the fundamental civic concept that the good citizen in the completest sense is one

who does not allow himself to become so engrossed in the process of making a living as to lose sight of those other duties of good citizenship that he owes to family and friends, to society generally, and above all to the state.

The conclusion has already been arrived at that civics should include both a curriculum of studies and a curriculum of activities. As a part of the latter, the following are evolving naturally from the course itself: student self-government in the class and even in the school, at least for certain definite purposes; the formation of voluntary junior civic leagues, whose activities may extend from thoughtful care in the home and school and on the street to the extermination of moths and flies, or even to the cultivation or beautification of vacant lots; coöperation with civic organizations and with governmental agencies.

#### THE TEST OF EFFICIENCY

The aim of early civic training, no matter what the locality or the method pursued, is clear and definite: to make intelligent, interested, practical citizens, who will know what good government is and how to coöperate with public officials to get it. Unless, as Mr. Dunn has well said, the young person's interest shall have been aroused in civic matters, with corresponding motives for participation in community life; unless, further, a certain degree of civic initiative and judgment shall have been cultivated in the boy and girl, these years of effort will have been largely wasted.

This newer type of civic training, unfortunately, has not yet been in operation long enough for one to speak over-confidently in justification of so radical a departure from the old order; nor is anyone claiming that a panacea has been found for all the ills of the body politic. But the sponsors for the new civics are willing to abide by the results, as they shall appear in the actual civic life of the boys and girls who grow up under its influence.

Now a few words as to the sort of civic education that is already being worked out for the secondary school. Here, as in the elementary school, civics (known familiarly as civil government) has long been a sort of "poor relation" to history, and accorded the sort of treatment that such kinsfolk are traditionally held to receive. If taught at all it was usually in the third or fourth year, along with United States history, and was often little more than a rehash of

the grammar school civics in a more mature form. Obviously, this sort of stuff was not even intended to set pupils to thinking—only to additional memorizing. No adequate gripping of social phenomena, no thought of trying to comprehend even the simpler social problems of the day or the attempts at their solution, not even a determination to understand in a vital and comprehensive way the very Constitution that was usually made the basis of study! No wonder it was often regarded by the teacher as so much wasted time, filched from history.

But this poor relative is to be richly endowed, her very name is to be changed from "civics" or "civil government" to "social science," and she is to be accorded the place of honor at the educational board—an entire year, and preferably the closing one of the high school course. Will she be worthy of her new honors?

Without entering into details, which, indeed, are not yet agreed upon, it will suffice to say that this culminating year of social science will include the elements of social theory—economic, political, sociological—with constant illustration and application to the concrete problems of life. All the practical civics and the socialized history that the school has found time for must be drawn upon as a basis, no matter what the method of approach that shall finally be adopted.

The main purpose here is to help the young person to determine the mutual relationships of the social forces and events he has been observing throughout his school days. The nature of the state, of government, of law; representative types of government, with the strength and weakness of each; the objects and functions of government; social organization, social leadership, social control,—all these and other fundamental concepts, both political and economic, can be touched upon in a way that shall be interesting and vital to any normal eighteen-year-old boy or girl.

Carefully selected readings from various authorities may be safely assigned for report and class discussion, so long as care is taken that the reading and thinking of the pupils are constantly put to the test of practical experience and observation. It must be remembered that the object is to stimulate in our young citizens of this great Democracy the ability and the desire to analyze familiar social phenomena, to understand their social environment. It may be thought that this is a rather ambitious program for the secondary

school to attempt; but, after all, it is simply the culmination of the years of observing and thinking that have been going on throughout the school life, provided those years have been rich in the studies which train the powers of observation and demand a fair modicum of close, consecutive thinking.

This brief paper makes no claim of exhausting the subject of training for civic efficiency. It merely outlines one of the paths that the schools of tomorrow are going to follow, along with all the other agencies that make for civic education and civic righteousness.

## THE MORAL TRAINING OF CHILDREN

BY EDWARD HOWARD GRIGGS, A.M., L.H.D.,

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The type of character moral education should seek to foster is no mere negative respectability or virtue of cowardice, but the whole positive and effective moral personality, seeing the best, loving the best, willing the best. Moral education is, therefore, not a *phase* of education, but *all* education focussed. The one aim significant enough to solve the controversies of modern education, to integrate the whole process, furnish the basic principle for a reasoned philosophy and annul the conflict between training for vocation and education for life, is positive moral character.

### MORAL IMPORT IN ALL ASPECTS OF EDUCATION

No aspect of education is indifferent in relation to that aim, and the specific value of each phase of the process is finally determined by its contribution to it. Hence the harmful triviality of the notion that moral education means teaching "morals and manners" to children thirty minutes a day, three times a week!

The merest statical conditions surrounding the child bear directly on the development of character. It is a moral necessity that schoolrooms should be well ventilated and lighted, with quietly tinted walls and unobtrusive but beautiful decorations, that the grounds should be ample and pleasant. So too, physical education finds its proper place, not in training muscular strength or manual expertness, but in developing the sound, healthy, graceful body that may be a fitting instrument for the mind and spirit.

Every study in the curriculum directly affects the same end. It is a moral question that an arithmetic problem should be worked honestly, that every lesson should be done thoroughly. Nature study is the great opportunity to teach, without didactic moralizing, the two fundamental moral principles—effort and conformity—work and obedience. The whole order of life is based upon them.

If you sow chaff, you cannot reap wheat. If you shirk plowing, there is a lessened harvest.

#### MORAL VALUE OF LITERATURE AND HISTORY

Nature, however, sanctions deceit, cruelty and blind selfishness. The higher moral principles—love, unselfish service, sacrifice—are evident only in human life. Hence the supreme value for moral education of those subjects in the curriculum that represent humanism. In the elementary period they are two: history—then chiefly biography—and literature. The two subjects are singularly complementary: history records the actions of men; literature expresses their ideals and aspirations. History thus gives the body of that of which literature expresses the soul.

Both subjects present life under the reign of law, history telling what has happened, literature showing what, given certain characters and conditions, must have happened. In both, the laws governing life can be taught, often far more effectively than by direct ethical instruction. In both, further, is the record of noble deeds and the portrayal of lofty characters. The result is a gradual molding of ideals supremely important for the whole after life. Not only noble, but mingled characters are portrayed—all sorts of human beings; so that the student learns to reach out over them and appreciate them, and to say, even as child, with the old Latin poet, "I am Man, and nothing human is foreign to me."

#### DIRECT ETHICAL INSTRUCTION

This indirect moral teaching must, of course, be supplemented by direct ethical instruction, which, while not the most important part of moral education, is nevertheless indispensable. To do right, one must know the right. To give this instruction wisely is difficult, for children resent didactic moralizing even more than we do. The teaching must be closely associated with the child's experience, and yet not lost in the concrete, the great principles of life and conduct being gradually developed. All of them, with one exception, are implicit in the experience even of the child. Thus the aim of life, the path leading to the aim, and the laws governing our conduct in the path, can all be taught, without leaving the field of the child's own experience. Generally speaking, the wiser the teacher, the less

desirable is a text-book, in view of the fact that the text-books available are so didactic and artificial. Talks with the children (not *at* them), at regular intervals, dealing with the problems in their own home and school life, or with the moral questions arising from the studies above considered, form the ideal medium for such instruction, if the teacher is wise enough to use it. The guiding principle should be that no critical experience of the child's life be allowed to pass into the dim shadows of the yesterdays, without having the meaning of it brought home clearly to the child's mind.

#### MORAL VALUE OF WORK AND PLAY

Even more important in the development of positive and effective moral personality are the activities of the child and the government and discipline to which he is subjected. Every influence playing upon him gets its final meaning only when interpreted in terms of the child's own activity.

As in ethics the superstition long prevailed that action was morally worthy in proportion as it was hard and unlovely, so in education the parallel notion held sway for ages that action is educative in proportion to its hard, forbidding character. Rousseau made the great protest against this notion; and what Rousseau saw, Froebel worked out, far more sanely. It is impossible to exaggerate our debt to the kindergarten for showing the immense educational value of wisely guided play. In work, part of the energy is spent in overcoming friction; while in play, all the energy goes into acquiring the activity; hence it is learned much more rapidly. Play, moreover, is the great opportunity for appreciating the big aspects of human experience, and especially for learning voluntary social co-operation in the pursuit of common ends.

Were human nature perfect, play would be the one form of action; but no one is fitted for life who is not willing and able to do a great many things he does not like to do, because it is right that he should do them. Thus, in education, work must be constantly utilized, as well as play, for the development of character. Work gives the mastery of the means necessary to the ends we seek and develops self-direction and self-control. In the abuse of the kindergarten and in many homes, where children are titillated and cajoled into right behaviour, and where nothing is required of them

except what they like to do, the result is a flabby, uncontrolled character, utterly unfit for the serious business of life.

If children are not required to do some part of the work of the household, they will not only lack self-dependence, but grow up into social snobs. The only way to teach a child respect for simple labor is to require him regularly to perform it. The school can utilize for moral training, not only forms of industrial work and manual training—the grammar of physical action—but those subjects, such as mathematics and the languages, which are tools rather than ends. Moreover, no matter how strong the child's interest in a study, there is plenty of dead work in any subject if it is honestly mastered. In requiring this work to be done regularly and thoroughly lies one of the best opportunities for developing positive and effective moral personality.

This does not mean that the parent or teacher should multiply obstacles for the sake of discipline. Remove all possible rocks and fallen trees from the path, and there will be work and hard climbing enough, if one *travels the path*. The more that work is transformed into play, the better, for always plenty of hard work remains for the full development of character.

#### GOVERNMENT AND DISCIPLINE

In both work and play, the moral result depends upon the guidance from above. In fact the child's life is constantly under government and discipline, which exercise the crowning influence upon character. An autocratic tyranny in the school, even more than in the state, tends to mold two types of citizens—slaves and nihilists. The weak children, those who like to obey, become blindly submissive to the autocratic will over them. We call such children good, but often they are merely docile. They are not fitted to be citizens of a democracy, to think for themselves, choose the best, resist injustice and display moral initiative. Just the strongest children, on the other hand, those who have the best stuff of human nature in them, tend to become rebels under an autocratic tyranny. We call such children bad; but generally they are not bad at all—merely misdirected. If we have made it a sheer conflict between the child's will and our own, and the child conquers, all honor to the child! The pity of it is, however, that such children

are not fitted to go out into the world where there is no freedom of caprice, but only freedom to obey the laws of life, and be happy and helpful, or to break yourself against them and perish.

Thus every reason for risking the experiment of democracy in the state is a multiplied obligation to apply it in the government and discipline of the home and school. Blind obedience to authority at best forms a moral habit, which will go to pieces with astonishing celerity if it is not transformed into intelligent response to law; but each time a child voluntarily obeys a principle, the reason for which he understands, he takes an important step forward in his own moral development. Thus the teacher should take the children into his confidence, avoid making rules, and talk with them over the questions of discipline that arise. Let the children formulate the principle for themselves, and then how the hands of the one in authority are strengthened, in dealing with the rare refractory case, by the public opinion of the school. Democracy in the government of children means that the aim is not the ease and comfort of the parent, the economic order of the school or the reputation of the teacher, but the *moral welfare* of each child.

This does not mean that democracy can be applied completely at the start. That has not been possible in the history of the race, nor can it be in the development of the individual. Little children obey us because they love, respect or fear us, and long before the child can understand why, he should obey. If a child grows to be seven or eight years old without forming the habit of regular response to the authority over him, irreparable harm has been done. First, obedience, then rational and intelligent obedience as fast as possible. The point is that we should welcome and seek to further the transformation from the one type to the other as rapidly as we can. Habit is merely the stuff out of which morality is made; it is only when conduct is voluntary and intelligent response to law, recognized as just, that moral character is formed.

It is hard to relinquish authority, and the better one's moral equipment and judgment, the more difficult is it to let go at the right time. Nevertheless, morally, as physically, the child can learn to walk only by walking. He will fall and hurt himself, it is true, but he must try; and with all our superior knowledge and wisdom, we must welcome his effort, relinquish our personal authority as fast as possible, and welcome the transference of his reverence

and response from us to the laws of life we are trying to interpret to him. Then we may reasonably hope that he will go out into the world, able to express intelligent initiative in our democracy, and to live voluntarily in harmony with the great laws of life.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> For a fuller discussion of the various aspects of moral education considered in this brief survey, the reader is referred to the author's work on *Moral Education*, published by B. W. Huebsch, New York.

## THE SCIENCE AND ART OF HOME MAKING

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At no time in the history of the home economics movement have developments been more interesting than at the present. Theory has given place to practice; prophecy has seen accomplishment; progress has become assured. The value of established courses is being measured up in terms of home life, and in just so far as women have become more efficient homemakers, in just so far can past work be said to have been successful. Measurement of results is peculiarly difficult. A new stage in the development of civilization has brought new problems for the housekeeper, and old standards of efficiency will not suffice. The housekeeper of today must recognize the truths that science has revealed and be prepared to meet present social situations.

### THE SCHOOL IN THE STUDY OF HOME MAKING

Because the problems of the home have become more complicated and its points of contact with the outside world have been multiplied, the service of the school has been sought to further the study of home making. In the beginning the schools taught sewing and cooking, isolated factors in the profession of housekeeping. Gradually the number of single activities studied has increased until today earnest attempts are being made to include the whole round of the housekeeper's duties and all closely related subjects in the home economics curriculum. How comprehensive such a course must be even a partial list of the housekeeper's duties will indicate. Outlined in formal fashion the housekeeper's responsibilities may be summed up under the following heads:

- I. A knowledge of the house—its sanitary condition and care; its arrangement for convenience, comfort and aesthetic pleasure.
- II. A knowledge of food—the source of its supply, its selection, chemical composition, nutritive value, cost, preparation and service.
- III. A knowledge of textiles and clothing—the sources and process of manufacture of textiles, the condition of textile industries, selection, cost, care and repair of clothing.

IV. A knowledge of the family—the physical, economic, intellectual and moral development of its members.

V. A knowledge of the relationship of the home to the community, the state, and the national government.

In addition to these interests the rural housekeeper may be engaged in some such activity as gardening, dairying, poultry raising, canning and preserving, always closely associated with housekeeping on the farm.

For the most part the problem has been attacked by the selection for study of those special subjects which seemed most vital or which the school was best prepared to teach. As much as possible other duties of the home have been made to center about the chosen topic but they have naturally been subordinated to it. Cooking has made possible many lessons in sanitation and laundry work; the division of the income, art in the home, personal hygiene, and the ethics of buying have been taught in connection with the lessons in sewing. Housewifery has been less emphasized but has been made the subject of profitable and interesting courses. While this has not proved an ideal method of procedure and courses have failed to cover the entire problem, much has been accomplished. Pupils have been awakened to the many sided interests of the housekeeper and have been imbued with an eager desire to perform intelligently all tasks connected with the home.

#### THE HOME COTTAGE OR APARTMENT AS LABORATORY

The development of courses in home management has been singularly slow. One of the most interesting and significant movements in home economics at the present time is the use of the home cottage or practice house for this purpose. Private schools, public schools, normal schools and teachers' colleges are alike recognizing its value. The public schools of Providence, R. I., New York City, Washington, D. C., Los Angeles, Cal. and Portland, Ore., have strengthened their homemaking lessons by use of a cottage or apartment. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, did some valuable work at Speyer School in developing a course of study for such a practice house. City conditions necessitated the use of an apartment rather than the separate house, but the work was developed along the same lines that it must be developed in any community. The course for the two grades was

based on the question, "What must a Speyer School girl know about the art of homemaking?" In the seventh grade, the main problem was, "What must a girl of my age know of food, clothing, and cleanliness in order to help my family to keep well, and strong, and happy?" and the work of the seventh grade was devoted to a study of practical questions relating to food and clothing as affected by health, economics, and art.

In the eighth grade the problem was still more concrete. A family consisting of father, mother, grandfather and three children, aged respectively, 14, 8, and 2 years, must live on \$1,200 a year. The question for the class to decide was "What are the main problems which confront the family who find they must live in this neighborhood in New York City?" The division of the income, the responsibility of the housekeeper, question of clothes, food, house-furnishings, health, recreation, etc., were considered in the eighth grade course.

For two years the William Penn High School of Philadelphia has carried on lessons in an apartment. The income of an imaginary family has been placed at twelve hundred dollars a year. A budget is decided upon and carried out in detail as to actual facts concerning food, shelter, clothing, etc. A minimum household equipment for the home is determined upon with the aid of the art teacher. The girls visit a store with their teacher and buy the house furnishings on a contract account. Dietetics problems are related to the necessary living conditions of the family. The girls plan the menus, make out the orders, and, under the supervision of the teacher, buy the food at a regular market. Finally the three meals that have been planned for a day are all prepared in one lesson, the girls working in groups, and all criticizing the results as to quantity, quality and balance. This work is continued until the meals for an entire week have been prepared; then estimates are worked out for the year and the budget is corrected to meet this standard. This is indicative of the best type of work that is offered in our schools.

#### TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR TEACHERS OF HOME MAKING

Training schools are engaged in the preparation of teachers to carry on such courses. The State Normal School at Stevens Point, Wisconsin, has two well-equipped cottages, accommodating

eight students and a teacher for each, where every girl in the home economics department lives for four weeks, assuming in turn the position of housekeeper, cook, dining-room maid and chamber-maid, thus coming in contact with the duties of modern housekeeping. The problem of furnishing has been worked out by the classes. Guests are made welcome and home conditions are simulated as much as possible. Similar work is being done in several other places where teacher training is given. Pratt Institute of Brooklyn has had such a cottage for several years. Southern schools have been quick to feel the value of this practical experience. At Dorland Institute, Hot Springs, North Carolina, a practice cottage was put into use more than five years ago. A cottage for this purpose was built at the Mississippi Institute and College in Columbus, Mississippi, in 1913.

In the university the use of the cottage makes possible the working out of many dietary problems and efficiency tests that are of vital importance in home management, so that the cottage seems to have a place in every grade of school and to lend itself to the working out of well-rounded courses.

Difficulties involved in teaching household management in the cottage include the expense to the school and the adjustment of programs of recitation. These are not insuperable and in the hands of an able teacher may find a ready solution, for home economics workers have found practical ways of meeting expenses all along the line and school schedules have grown more flexible as new types of work have been introduced.

#### POINTS OF EMPHASIS IN THE CURRICULUM

Realizing that in many homes even the girl in the grades has to help care for the younger members of the family, instruction in the care of babies is today being included in some public school courses. A trained nurse is often employed to impart this instruction, which is given in the most simple, practical way. The large doll and the nursery furnishings are coming to be part of the home economics equipment. Lessons on the care of the baby appear in some school texts. Courses in sewing include garments for the baby. In some high school classes a complete layette is made. Infant diet is studied in elementary and secondary schools and in extension and continuation courses.

From the first there has been a conscientious attempt to teach foods and cookery from the standpoint of food values and digestibility. The part that the school can play in this phase of the work has never been disputed, but better methods of teaching are developing, recipes of family size are being more generally used, more lessons center about the preparation of meals, and economy is receiving stronger emphasis. The elementary courses are leading to the formation of habits of industry, neatness and honest work that are strengthened by the more scientific courses of the high school. Through the lessons in sanitation, biology, chemistry, physics, physiology, bacteriology and social sciences, high school teachers are handling subjects that contribute appreciably toward better living.

Clothing has developed from the early lessons on formal samplers to useful garment making of all sorts, and is closely interwoven with textile study in its scientific, economic and social aspects. Hand sewing is adapted to the physical development of the child. Machine sewing is more generally taught and is introduced in earlier grades. Art and hygiene are both considered in the discussions on dress and house furnishings. Courses in sewing cannot be adequately handled by the woman who is merely the expert seamstress or the experienced dressmaker, for a background of science, art and industrial knowledge is essential.

The coming together of young people from homes in various localities and of different standards to study the problems of home making gives excellent opportunity for the presentation of community problems that are rightly regarded as the concern of the housekeeper. Therefore state laws relating to pure food, just weights and measures, public health, etc.; the work of the national government in the Department of Agriculture and elsewhere; and the activities of those private agencies whose work has bearing on the home should be made familiar to the home economics student.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT OF A UNIFIED CURRICULUM

The establishment of standard courses for certain types of schools has been gradually taking place. Practice has brought about one type of course for the grades, another for the high school,

and a third for the college. The differentiation between these types promises to grow more marked since home economics has become an integral part of the curriculum and has been deemed worthy of college credit.

The elementary school treats of the duties of home making in a very practical way. The best methods of carrying on the simple household industries are taught. The child who completes the eighth grade in a school where a good course in home economics has been given can keep the house in sanitary condition, prepare simple meals and do plain sewing neatly. In the rural schools where a special home economics teacher is not available, the regular teacher often accomplishes much by inspiring her children to take an active interest in the profession of the housekeeper. She may correlate the work closely with other subjects in the curriculum and help to give an added dignity to the work of the housekeeper by making clear its place in relation to other social activities. Since 58 per cent of the children of the nation attend rural schools, the work which is being done in home economics by the rural teacher is of special significance.

In the high school a scientific background is provided for the practical work of the grades. The student is enabled to work out new methods, to establish ideals, and to determine the best means of attaining these ideals in the home. Her course includes additional phases of sewing, cooking and housewifery, which may have been previously studied in the grades, and to them are added dietetics, textiles, dressmaking, laundering, home nursing, care of babies, household accounts and household management, or a possible variation of any one of these. Economics, sociology and the sciences of biology, physics, chemistry and bacteriology, are recognized as closely related to the special home economics course. The high school girl is prepared to keep house under varying conditions, to adjust herself to changes, and to enter upon a life of growth and service.

College courses further develop the courses offered in high school. The girl of more mature mind is ready for experiments and investigation of all sorts. This is the phase of the subject that has not yet been adequately worked out and to the development of which an eager interest is directed,

## THE GROWTH OF THE MOVEMENT

Today home economics is taught in all of our state agricultural colleges to which women are admitted; in practically all of our state normal schools, and in more than three thousand high and grade schools. It has become a popular course in private schools but is not yet included in the curricula of the leading women's colleges. Correspondence courses of collegiate grade are carried on by four state institutions. In four states, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Iowa and Indiana, the teaching of home economics in all public schools is required by law. In many of the normal schools brief courses are required of all women students to give them a broader perspective for their general teaching, to enable them to introduce courses in the rural schools, and to prepare them for house-keeping.

State supervisors of home economics have been appointed in four states. Eleven other states have some special system of home economics supervision. Twenty-three states have prepared courses of study in home economics for the common schools. For the most part parents are eager to have their children avail themselves of the privilege of pursuing such courses. The work involved is of quite as high a standard as in other school subjects, and special teachers are making every effort to keep abreast of the times and to be informed on all that tends toward better homemaking.

The funds made available by the Smith-Lever Act have led to a great increase in the amount of extension teaching in the rural districts. Women's clubs and other organizations are furthering the study of homemaking in towns and cities. The public press recognizes the movement as of universal interest. Combination of all these forces is helping to bring about a new era in which the study of home life and woman's work in the home is to receive the consideration that its importance merits. The campaign which is to accomplish this end has from the first been a campaign of education supported by all the forces that speak for progress.

## EDUCATION FOR PARENTHOOD

BY THOMAS C. BLAISDELL, PH.D.,

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Approximately one million, one hundred thousand marriages will be solemnized in the United States in 1916.<sup>1</sup> In the families thus begun perhaps three million children will be born during the next six or eight years. One out of five of these children, or about 600,000 of them, will die within a year of birth, and another 150,000 before the fifth birthday.<sup>2</sup> The right kind of education for the duties of parenthood in elementary and high schools, colleges, and "continuation" classes would cut this startling total to perhaps 75,000, if one may judge from what has been accomplished in a few localities by efficient coöperation among health agencies.

Herbert Spencer in *What Knowledge is of Most Worth* wonders whether a puzzled antiquarian of a remote future, finding nothing except our school books and college examinations, would not conclude that our courses of study were only for celibates and monastic orders, and later he says, "When a mother is mourning over a first-born . . . when she is prostrate under the pangs of combined grief and remorse, it is but a small consolation that she can read Dante in the original." One might add today that she will find but small consolation in the algebra, Latin, German and ancient history which she has "taken" in high school, and in the "pure" science and psychology, advanced mathematics and foreign language, theories of ethics and of logic, which she has been required to pursue in order to secure a B.A. degree. Might she not wisely ask:

What have these subjects done to prepare me for the MA degree, surely the degree which every woman should covet? Would it not have been possible to "apply" my chemistry to food values and food combinations, and my psychology and ethics to the training of children, and to substitute courses in "Training for Parenthood" for the required work in foreign language, mathematics and philosophy? Would it not be wisdom to make these traditional subjects elective, and to require a subject which is really fundamental in the education of all?

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<sup>1</sup>The latest statistics available are for 1906, when 853,290 marriages took place, or 39 per cent more than in 1896, when 613,873 marriages occurred. The same rate of increase would give 1,086,063 marriages in 1916.

<sup>2</sup>See Professor Irving Fisher's *National Vitality*.

Would not such subject matter result in a kind of clear thinking, which is not now being done in our traditional high school and college subjects? Would it not be possible, even in the upper grades, to "apply" the physiology and hygiene and to substitute really "human worth" subjects for technical grammar and much arithmetic, in order that those who never will enter high school may have some training for parenthood? Further, is not the boy and youth and young man as much entitled to such training as is his sister?

Three questions perhaps should be answered, namely, (1) What is now being done in elementary schools, high schools, colleges and continuation classes toward educating for the duties of parenthood? (2) What should be done? (3) What can be done as a beginning?

#### WHAT IS NOW BEING DONE

Rural schools, graded schools, high schools, and even colleges are beginning to realize that food values, cooking and sewing should have a place in courses of study because of their practical worth, and as a result domestic science and art are being widely introduced. Whenever these subjects are taught in a way so practical that they will function in the laborer's house as well as in the home of the prosperous merchant, they may be truly said to contribute to the right kind of education for parenthood.

There are, however, two real dangers in the teaching of these subjects. There is doubtless much truth in the criticism that such work has its foundations in the clouds rather than on solid earth—that more attention is given to lace and fudge and angel's food than to kitchen aprons and bread or to economical buying and balanced menus. Furthermore, are not teachers, capable of the best work, too often hampered by tradition and by the thought of exhibits and examinations? And finally is there not too much emphasis placed on the logical presentation of subjects? Some colleges, for example, keep young women studying general chemistry, food chemistry, etc., for two years, before allowing them to enter the sacred precincts of the cooking laboratory. By this time a third of the young women have tired of the treadmill of theory and have gone home. The trouble with this sort of teaching is that life is not logical, and no dictum of the schoolmaster can make it logical. In life we do, and by doing learn the theory of doing that makes us

more efficient in doing the same thing again. Education based first of all on logic is seldom if ever efficient education.

In Hartford, Connecticut, Montclair, New Jersey, and in other cities girls in the upper grades are taught to bathe and care for babies. In a few high schools day nurseries are maintained, thus giving girls an opportunity to learn something of the care of infants. Many schools by physical examinations are emphasizing the care of teeth, of eyes, and of the general health. If the thought of using such information in their own homes is kept ever prominent such work is excellent training for the duties of parenthood.

In many schools play is supervised. Games and folk dances thus learned may be made splendid education for use in the home. A few high schools are teaching something of eugenics; others are teaching sex hygiene. Not many are teaching applied ethics, though the work of Professor F. C. Sharp of the University of Wisconsin along this line is having a manifest effect in that state and even more widely.

Perhaps more direct work is being done in continuation classes than anywhere else. These are maintained by many schools, as well as by Christian Associations and other organizations in districts populated largely by the foreign born. The work done in them in training mothers to feed their children wisely and to care for them properly is notably efficient.

#### WHAT SHOULD BE DONE

To answer this, consider first what the young man and young woman should be when they come to marriage. Physically they should be so developed that every muscle and every organ functions normally. They should understand the heredity, the food, the fresh air, the exercise and the moderation that make for such physique. Mentally they should be normal, and should know enough of eugenics to understand the grave danger of marriage on the part of the mentally deficient. Morally and spiritually, the more nearly they approach the teachings of Jesus, the better. They should know sex hygiene, and should have at least general ideas of food values for babies and children; of when to send for the doctor and what to do until he comes; of the symptoms of common diseases; of the value of work and play and rest and sleep and moderation; of the mental development of children; of the ethical and moral training of chil-

dren; of the effects of coffee, tea, tobacco and alcohol (within a week I saw a woman give a glass of beer to a child under three years old); and besides these general ideas they should know just where to get the books that will give the most specific help.

The early school years should train toward physically efficient bodies both by teaching and by practice. Fresh air, hygienic drinking cups, care of the teeth, no coffee, tea, tobacco, or alcohol, exercise out of doors daily, food values, how to eat, simple sex hygiene, lessons for girls in the bathing and caring of infants, something of how parents and children should play and chum and laugh and love and work together,—all this and much more should be and can be accomplished in the grades.

In the high school should come more complete training along all these lines, and in addition there should be courses in simple eugenics and euthenics, simple applied psychology, practical ethics after the plan of Professor Sharp, practical biology, both chemistry and physics as applied to the home, exact but very practical studies in food values, with at least one course of a year aiming directly to train for the duties of parenthood. Such a course might be called "Life Problems." It should bring into a unit all the less direct training found in the various courses. As a basis Professor McKeever's *Training the Girl* and *Training the Boy* might be used until some book written for the immediate purpose shall be on the market, both books to be read and studied alike by boys and girls. With this study should go constant reference to a class library of perhaps a dozen volumes, merely to give some knowledge of possible books for later reading.

In grammar schools and high schools emphasis should be placed on the value of this knowledge in self-training and in helping mother to train younger brothers and sisters. Its value in after years will care for itself.

All manual training work is education for parenthood, if it is so taught that in after years the father will make it possible for his children to supply themselves with tools and nails and screws and boards and to make the thing wanted, he giving such suggestion and inspiration as will help them over the hard places. It is peculiarly effective training when the pupil is permitted to make during his shop periods something he really wishes to make; when he is set at a

task and compelled to do what is irksome, its educational value is largely gone. And should not every girl have some opportunity to learn to drive a nail, and saw a board for the sake of the future home? Further, should not camp cookery and bachelor's sewing be given to boys while the more advanced work is being given to girls?

Where find the time for such studies as are here suggested? Would it not be better to require this work of all students than to require foreign language, algebra, geometry and ancient history, if it is impossible to include both? Just how do any of these subjects make for efficient parenthood or citizenship? Do they function in life? But you must prepare for college? Who said so? Should the high school, which is the people's college, refuse to educate merely because many college courses of today belong in the centuries long past? Some colleges already will accept the student prepared along the lines indicated; all that are of the twentieth century will accept them as soon as the high schools begin to graduate them, exactly as most colleges are today accepting entrance units in vocational work. Put in the courses, and the colleges will have to accept them. It is only a third of a century ago that most colleges would not accept a student unless he was prepared in Greek.

What should the college do? For the present exactly the things suggested for the high school, only it should do them in a more thorough and practical manner. The definite course suggested should be included as required work in all college courses, in both technical and liberal arts schools. Why? Because no college should send forth a man or woman for leadership who has had no training in the most important business of life. Courses in psychology (particularly in genetic psychology), in ethics, in philosophy, in all sciences, in pedagogy, in literature, should be taught with this end in view. Oral composition courses should include story telling for children. A required course in "Literature for Children" should be established.

#### WHAT CAN BE DONE

One would think, the importance of the end to be attained being in mind, everything here suggested can be done shortly. Spencer's *Education* was published in 1861. He so clearly showed the need of training for parenthood that one would have expected a decade to

see such education firmly established. Nearly six decades have seen almost nothing done. So what can be done? Every interested teacher can do something indirectly if not directly. In time something will be done directly in every school. It can come only by littles. No school should wait for a demand for it from the people. The people do not demand advances in education. They look with a reverent superstition on the medieval curricula of today. Foreign language and mathematics are sacred. The colored man, freed from chains, thought a little Latin would educate him. His superstition is all but nation wide. The change must come through the steady forward march of educational leaders.

But this can be done: Every teacher can be made familiar with Course No. 3 of the Home Education Division of the United States Bureau of Education, "A Reading Course for Parents." It is made up of a splendid list of books which cover admirably the field of education for parenthood. A request brings the list. The books are not expensive. Teachers, once familiar with the course, can aid in its wide adoption; ministers can recommend it; all can give it publicity.

Teachers can send to the Bureau of Education for bulletin No. 610, *Education for the Home* (four parts), by Benjamin R. Andrews. This sums up all that is being done in schools and colleges the country over. It suggests how the sciences may be applied to home training and outlines various courses of study given at the University of Wisconsin, at Simmons College, and elsewhere. So, too, teachers can become familiar with the work of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality.

Most of all, every community should organize continuation classes. At least 2,000,000 young women between sixteen and twenty-four are employed in this country, and not less than 5,000,-000 of the same age are unemployed and yet out of school. Classes for such young women can be organized in every community if one individual has a real interest in the subject. The churches, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. organizations, and schools—all are agencies that may independently and coöperatively carry on such classes both for young women and for young men, thus giving them a chance for out-of-school training, to make up for what the schools and

colleges have omitted in the past by way of specific training for the duties of parenthood.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>For the suggested required course in college and high school, perhaps the class library should include the following books, in addition to the ones mentioned: Tanner's *The Child*, Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., 1904; Hall's *Youth*, New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912; Hall's *Adolescence* (for college classes), New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1904; Lippert and Holmes's *When to send for the Doctor*; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippencott Co., 1913; Adler's *Moral Instruction of Children*, New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1895; Betts's *Fathers and Mothers*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1915; Forbush's *The Coming Generation*, New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1912; Fisher and Fisk's *How to Live*, New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1915; Hodges's *The Training of Children in Religion*, New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1911; Halleck's *Psychology and Psychic Culture*, New York: American Book Co., 1895; Sharp's *Moral Education*, Mrs. Fisher's *Self-Reliance*, and Kirkpatrick's *The Use of Money*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.

## VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN SCHOOL AND OCCUPATION

BY JOHN M. BREWER, PH.D.,

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Vocational guidance deals with the problems of informing or advising persons in regard to choosing, preparing for, entering upon and making progress in occupations. The importance of this problem is evident to any thinking adult; what is not so obvious is the practical answer to the question: What can the school do about vocational guidance? This paper aims to present in summary fashion the plans and possibilities which suggest the answer. The very breadth of our problem makes its complexity inevitable. Glance, if you will, at the topics of the papers in this volume, and note that many of them are related, directly or indirectly, to success and happiness in the calling. Besides these subjects, moreover, vocational guidance must concern itself with the problems of commerce and industry: economics, labor organizations, land values, taxation, transportation; any plan for comprehensive guidance must not restrict itself to narrowly educational investigations.

In spite of the importance of the subject of vocational guidance, and the need for strenuous intellectual endeavor in attempting to solve its complex problems, schools had made little conscious effort to work out even a tentative solution until Meyer Bloomfield began his activities in the Boston schools six years ago. Several causes have contributed to the reluctance of the school: (a) School people have not known the occupational world well enough to advise pupils in regard to vocational opportunities; (b) schools "prepared for life" only in general and indefinite ways,—it was not widely recognized, as it begins to be now, that culture on the one hand and specific experiences of a practical sort on the other belong together and should both be furnished by the school; (c) it was frequently assumed that parents would provide all the vocational guidance necessary, or that the job itself would automatically furnish it; (d) American individualism led to a *laissez-faire* policy, to an ener-vating admiration of the "self-made" man, and to other such tacit denials of the utility of vocational guidance.

All this time in which the schools were neglecting the duty of coöperating with the young people when they were making their vocational decisions, however, an active but erroneous form of guidance was going on—a species of false guidance which still flourishes. The suggestions of the street, village, city, or limited environment enter the mind of the child and influence his decisions. Uncriticised information about the successes of others, suggestions of relatives or of child companions, or newspaper and magazine advertisements of doubtful veracity aid him in reaching decisions which determine the course of his whole life. If the school is not willing that such sources of vocational misinformation should monopolize the field, it must make systematic efforts to furnish proper substitutes.

#### WHAT THE SCHOOLS ARE DOING

Schools in various parts of the country have already developed the elements of effective vocational guidance. If certain good plans now in successful operation could be gathered up and set into motion in any one school system, that school system would make adequate provision for guidance. Let us now examine some of these plans.

##### (1) THE LIFE-CAREER CLASS FORMED

Some ten or more high schools, within the writer's limited investigation, are conducting regular classes for the study of occupations. The following are some illustrations of the work being done at various places: In Oakland Technical High School, California, first-year pupils meet in classes once each week throughout the year, and, under the leadership of teachers who are making a study of vocational guidance, investigate occupations and study the problems of continued education in relation to the calling. Boys and girls are in separate classes. In Middletown, Connecticut, the life-career class has been a regular part of the high school work for several years. Recently a textbook for boys has been issued, based on the work in this school.<sup>1</sup> The plan includes a study of the whole field of occupations, under ten different heads, together with discussions of the following topics: the importance of vocational information, characteristics of a good vocation, how to study voca-

<sup>1</sup> Gowin, Enoch Burton, and Wheatley, William Alonzo, *Occupations*, Ginn and Company, 1916.

tions, choosing a vocation, securing a position, efficient work and its reward.

Other plans are fully as comprehensive. Grand Rapids has accomplished the same result without creating new classes,—the work in English composition has been directed into vocational channels, and the pupils in all the grades from the seventh through the high school have the benefit of systematic enlightenment about the following topics: vocational ambition, value of education, the elements of character that make for success in life, vocational biographies, the world's work, choosing a vocation, preparation for life's work, vocational ethics, social ethics, civic ethics.<sup>2</sup>

The life-career class should begin much lower than the high school; it is known that a large proportion of the "leakage" from school occurs before the sixth grade. It is unfair to these children that they should be permitted to go from school into occupational life without some insight into and outlook upon the opportunities and problems about them.

#### (2) SCHOOL STUDIES ADAPTED TO VOCATIONAL NEEDS

Many schools which have not organized life-career classes have done excellent work in reorganizing the material in the subjects of the established program. The teacher of a lesson in arithmetic, geography, language, or science should bear in mind that each child's life presents certain actual and potential requirements of a personal, social, occupational, and civic sort, and should see that the study and experience involved in each lesson are so planned as to contribute something toward satisfying these needs. Many subjects of the school program should be almost wholly related to occupational needs, and practically every lesson in the school work has something to contribute to success and usefulness in the vocation. Occupational needs are not the only needs, but they should not be ignored. Teachers in Boston and Grand Rapids have made progress in this particular. Many teachers are using the "project" method in teaching: thus, arithmetical principles are taught in connection with "keeping store," or building a play house, and the principles of physics by putting together an automobile. Trips, visits to museums and galleries and coöperative tasks such as building a

<sup>2</sup>Davis, Jesse Buttrick, *Vocational and Moral Guidance*, Ginn and Company, 1914.

miniature landscape, dramatizing an event, or keeping the school yard clean, may be used as aids in teaching geography, history, and community civics. It has been said that lack of interest and profit in school work is largely due to the fact that the tasks assigned to children are those that no one outside of school is engaged in performing. Vocational guidance would be much more intelligently done if each child might have concrete experiences in solving actual problems.

### (3) SCHOOL REORGANIZATION TO MEET VOCATIONAL NEEDS

A less direct but very important way in which the school system can adapt itself to the needs of vocational guidance is by changing its organization to suit modern needs. Kindergartens, good playground facilities, a school program rich in many different kinds of mental and manual exercises, and junior high schools with a wide range of subjects, all help the pupil to find his abilities and to measure himself against many kinds of tasks. Versatility is important; a "jack-of-all-trades" experience is a good basis for the intelligent choice of an occupation. Many school systems have in the elementary grades simple work in clay, printing, gardening, sewing, cooking, wood, and iron; and some have work in shoe repairing, electricity, cement, and bookbinding. The intermediate or junior high school, which admits children at the end of the sixth grade and keeps them for three years, offers splendid opportunity for the child's development and self-discovery. This is the "trying-out period"—the time when teachers and pupils may coöperate for vocational guidance with great advantage. All pupils at this age should have a broad study of occupational opportunities.

The organization should provide, too, for individual conferences on vocational choices, and on such questions as further education, means of preparation for particular occupations, opportunities of earning money to allow the education to be continued, and preferences of parents. These conferences need be nothing more than friendly conversations, with information and advice suited to the needs of the individual. Each child may be asked to choose several occupations for special study, with tentative decision on one or two. No pupil should be asked to make his final choice of an occupation prematurely,—many may profitably delay the choice until the college age. We may insist, however, that no one should be forced

by economic necessity, or by the negligence of the schools, to enter a job or an occupation blindly. In the Boston schools the eighth grade teachers hold individual conferences with their pupils, aiding them especially in choosing a high school. In Birmingham, England, men and women under the general direction of the school authorities in the occupations often act as advisers of children.

Teachers who are especially qualified for the work should have time allotted them for vocational guidance. Much can be done on a volunteer basis in the beginning, but the investigations necessary to effective work require more time than the teacher can spare from her regular duties. Those appointed to do counseling should study the economic, industrial, commercial and professional life of their communities, and make efforts to coöperate with workers and employers. They should follow the children who leave school, guiding them in their progress in the occupations, and deriving from them valuable information to use in advising those still in school. Counselors may hold frequent conferences for developing good methods in the work.

Parents, too, need help and advice. In Pomona, California, the vocational director for the schools is holding a series of parents' meetings for the consideration of problems connected with the guidance of the children. The school departments in a score or more of places have each appointed some one person to exercise general supervision over the vocational guidance work of the schools. These officers assist the teachers in finding occupational values in the studies of the school program, hold teachers' conferences for the discussion of methods of vocational guidance, enlist the aid of civic associations, help in securing work, arrange for apprenticeship and part-time agreements, investigate occupations, and conduct life-career classes.

#### EXTRA-CURRICULAR AIDS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The student affairs and club activities of the children give them experience which is valuable for vocational guidance. The Boy Scout and Camp Fire Girl movements acquaint their members with many kinds of useful activities not yet furnished by the schools, and they substitute projects or "merit badge" tests for formal instruction. Summer camps, athletics, debating, boys' and girls' clubs, student self-government, and literary societies all offer opportunities

for learning lessons of self-reliance, service, and coöperation—valuable traits for all callings of life.

Is finding jobs for children an aid to their vocational guidance? Some school people unhesitatingly answer yes, while others think that there are far more profitable activities for the vocational counselor. Though much good argument may be found for the affirmative side of the question, and though some "vocational guidance bureaus" are concerning themselves almost wholly with placement, it seems fair to say that other activities in vocational guidance are more profitable to society and to the individual than securing places for unprepared children who leave school. The conditions of finding employment are in an unsatisfactory state, but it is by no means certain that placement by school people would relieve these conditions, nor even that the school could obtain better positions for the masses of workers than they could secure for themselves. Placement deals with the effects of maladjustments in the occupational world, and the energy of the vocational counselor should be directed at removing the real causes of the difficulty.

#### THE RELATION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE TO VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational education is the subject of another paper of this volume. Great strides forward have been taken during the last few years, and through this progress the efficiency of vocational guidance has been greatly increased. It is worth pointing out here, however, that vocational counseling requires certain essentials in the program of vocational education. In the first place, it is well to remember that vocational education must not begin too soon, even if it aims to help those already at work. Thus, it has been found that the pupils of the continuation schools (schools which young people at work attend during working hours for from four to ten hours per week) are most of them not ready for vocational education, for they have not really decided on a life-career and they are working at jobs which offer little opportunity for advancement. In the second place, vocational education must not be too narrowly restricted to training for the mere occupation. The reasons for this are that education for social, moral, and citizenship duties must receive ample attention; and that in spite of careful decision and careful preparation for an occupation a change in the choice of

vocation is sometimes made. Vocational training must be broader than training for one mechanical process; the younger the children the broader should the schooling be, even if specific training for the calling be left till after the young people have entered the occupation.

In the third place, vocational preparation should include a study of the economic, political, and social problems connected with industry and commerce. Many a farmer who has failed was efficient in everything but the problems of transportation and commission; the industrial worker should know something of wages, taxation, labor organizations, scientific management, unemployment, the factors in personal and social efficiency, blind alleys in industry, employment agencies, and welfare work.

#### COÖPERATION FOR GUIDANCE IN THE OCCUPATION

During the past few years the schools, the workers, and the employers have joined forces for investigations and improvement in a way never before thought possible. Vocational surveys, part-time schemes, continuation schools, extension and short courses, apprenticeship agreements, more practical methods of teaching, and new insight into working conditions, on the part of teachers, are some of the results. Let us note first the findings in regard to young workers.

##### (1) THE YOUNG WORKER

Investigations have shown that even in the states which do not tolerate the grosser forms of child labor, schools and occupations are to blame for the continuance of distressing conditions. It has been shown that in many instances the school fails to attract the child—he leaves because neither he nor his parents think that the schooling is worth while. Economic pressure seems to be less a controlling factor than it was formerly thought to be. Hence the duty of the school to satisfy the desire for "worth-while" education.

Again, it has been shown that the working child under sixteen is usually in a "blind-alley" occupation,—often a mere errand boy,—and finds himself several years later with no worthy calling and no preparation for any. Other disadvantages in children's work are the necessity for their hunting work (this is especially to be regretted in the case of young girls), the seasonal character of much of the work for the young, the difficulties due to inefficiency and misunderstandings, and the wandering from job to job in the vain

hope that better conditions of employment will be found. Enlightened employers as well as educational investigators seem to have arrived at the conclusion that neither industry nor commerce needs the services of children under sixteen, and that their place is in the school.

Certain remedies have been proposed and tried; we have space here only to enumerate them: part-time work for those forced to earn money (either a half-day each in school and occupation, or alternate weeks); scholarships for needy children; better working agreements, these to be filed at the school offices; plans for opening "blind alleys"—for offering training to every young worker for promotion to a better occupation; progressive raising of the compulsory school age. It seems clear that vocational guidance cannot be effective without creating or at least working for better opportunities for boys and girls, hence the counselor is interested in furthering all movements for putting the school and work experiences of the young on a sounder basis.

#### (2) THE PROBLEMS OF EMPLOYMENT

The vocational counselor is interested, too, in coöperating with employers, the employed, and legislative and executive officials in the progressive improvement of conditions of labor. If the school is to prepare boys and girls for a life in industry and commerce, then it must be deeply interested in the question of wages, fatigue, hours of labor and steady employment. Some firms hire thousands annually, in order to keep a force of hundreds. They must be shown how to reduce this "labor turnover," and men interested in vocational guidance are assisting in the work. Employment departments are being put in charge of intelligent and responsible managers, and plans have been instituted for analyzing jobs, hiring help, transfers, promotions, handling of complaints and constructive suggestions, and training employment managers.

The modern movement for "scientific management" must be safeguarded in its service to society—the counselor must inform himself regarding this problem. The apparent conflict between personal ambition and community service must be solved through the aid of painstaking vocational guidance. School pupils must be trained for coöperative endeavor. Progressive business houses are making increasing effort to use the opinions of the employes in

determining the policies of management, and to turn over to them the social or welfare work of the establishments.

Both children and adults need guidance in seeking employment, and the counselor must join in the movement for public employment agencies and labor exchanges to take the place of the wasteful and unreliable commercial agency. Not only does the vocational guidance movement concern itself with these problems of employment; but it maintains also that the coming generation of workers should be equipped to contribute intelligently to their solution. The life-career classes, and the plans for vocational education, should include a discussion of these problems.

### (3) DANGERS TO BE AVOIDED

Vocational guidance has not been free from certain misconceptions and questionable practices. The present utility of psychological testing for vocational guidance has been greatly exaggerated. In spite of extravagant claims, it is doubtful if any set of laboratory tests yet devised is of general, practical value for our purposes. Again, many sincere persons try to advise pupils by first classifying them into "types." Human nature is complex, however, and no simple pigeonholes will serve in vocational guidance. Besides, the theory that there are types of mind has been much discredited through recent investigations, and no counselor can afford to use it. Again, there has been in some schools an unwarranted use of record blanks with long lists of questions involving self-analysis beyond the abilities of the children. Teachers, too, have tried to analyze individual children, labeling one as "attentive," another "observant," another "dull," "persistent," "orderly," or "slow." It is now beginning to be seen that persons cannot be ticketed in this naive manner,—that the disorderly boy in one kind of activity is likely to become orderly in another, and that even a moral quality as honesty may, by the same person, be exhibited in one situation and be lacking in another. In other words, the theory of formal discipline or general training must not deceive the teachers; there are few if any mental qualities which, when present in one activity, may be credited to an individual as a general characteristic. A boy's perseverance in baseball does not guarantee his perseverance in arithmetic. Some teachers attach too great importance to mere physical characteristics, or to such vague and

unmeasured hypotheses as "the influence of heredity," "innate qualities," "native ability," and others. All reliance on such data, together with phrenology, "character analysis," and study of physiognomies, had best be left to the charlatan. Life is too complex for such short cuts,—scientific study of vocational guidance problems is necessary, and there is no easy way.

Again, overconfident advice must be avoided; it has been proved unsafe to attempt to tell a boy just what he can or cannot become. Then, too, unsocial influence has no place in vocational guidance. School people cannot afford to interest themselves in helping boys and girls merely to "get ahead of the other fellow," in the "race for success," nor to glorify mere will-power unchecked by social viewpoint, nor to encourage questionable forms of "salesmanship," as these propositions are advertised in some current magazines. Moral and social ideals must not be lost sight of. The student himself must by no means be passive in all this program of activity. He must progressively awaken to a realization of his opportunities, and must develop a desire to reap only the rewards of such honest service as he can fit himself to render. Without the student's awakening, vocational guidance is of little or no effect.

#### CONCLUSION

Such, in brief, are the main currents of interest and accomplishment in the movement for vocational guidance. Though the guidance is to be offered to each pupil in the schools, and to each young person at work, it will be seen that effective aid can be given only as schooling and conditions of employment are gradually improved. At the present time many school systems are making children aware of occupational opportunities, and preparing them for effective labor. There is taking place a reexamination and readjustment of school methods (this volume is one of the evidences), and teachers are now as never before coöperating with intelligent laymen in the solution of perplexing problems of employment. The progress in these fields of educational and economic endeavor during the past decade gives hope enough for the future. The movement which we are discussing in this paper aims to contribute its best thought to these streams of conscious evolution, and, at the same time, to derive from them the means for a more efficient "vocational guidance of youth," in school and in occupation.

## EDUCATION FOR LIFE WORK IN NON-PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS

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Changes, both vocational and social, have laid new responsibilities upon the school and offered new opportunities for greater service in life preparation. We have become conscious of these changes and their significance, and the need is now as well recognized and appreciated for vocational education in the non-professional callings as in the professions.

The breaking down of the apprenticeship system, the development of specialization and piece work, the difficulty in securing more than a few relatively simple manipulative skills or operations in employment itself, the fact of constant change in industry and commercial life calling for flexibility and adaptability in workers—all of these facts and factors have been much discussed, and they are too well known to require more than passing mention as causes for the widespread interest in vocational education. Changes in social attitude have also come about which are largely the resultant of vocational changes and changes in economic relationships. The subordination of the many workers to the one employer, the frequent exploitation of workers by employers, the occasional injustices suffered by employers at the hands of organizations of workers, the development of large and powerful capitalistic corporations on the one hand and of labor combinations on the other, and the frequent injury of the long-suffering consumer or the innocent bystander have all contributed to develop a collectivistic attitude which expresses itself in new forms of social responsibility and social control. The public support and direction of vocational education has come to be regarded in several states as a social responsibility, and now the federal government has adopted a policy of national aid in its support and development.

The early entrance of boys and girls upon vocations and the consequent neglect of the larger demands of citizenship in their

training have had their place in awakening the public to its responsibility in requiring a more effective education for workers in the industrial, commercial, and agricultural vocations. Four large ends contribute to the well-being of the individual and equally to that of the society of which he is a part, namely, (1) the preservation of health, (2) the development of practical efficiency, (3) preparation for responsible and effective citizenship, and (4) training in the wise use of leisure. Neglect of any one of these elements means impaired vocational productivity in the long run. In the earlier movement for vocational education, the emphasis was very partial to the second of these elements alone. Limiting the training of the non-professional workers to the development of immediate practical efficiency, and failing to develop adaptability and these other more indirect elements are both wasteful and dangerous.

#### SOME CONTROLLING FACTORS IN NON-PROFESSIONAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Between vocational education for the professions and for the non-professional occupations there exist a number of fundamental differences. Some of these have been wholly neglected in the haste with which occasional attempts at vocational education have been made in industrial and commercial fields. It is worth while to note these differences and the implications which follow from them:

##### (1) EARLY ENTRANCE TO NON-PROFESSIONAL VOCATIONS

Entrance upon professional callings assumes a maturity in years and a foundation in liberal education much greater than in the fields of industry, commercial life and agriculture entered by the greater number of workers. While few enter the professions under twenty years of age, and many not until four or five years later, the masses of workers in the productive and distributive fields enter in their teens, many in their very early teens. A full high school education, a college education, and often a later specialized professional course make up the preparation for professional workers. Few in the non-professional callings have a high school education and many not even a full elementary school course. This puts a burden upon the secondary vocational schools which does not have to be assumed by professional schools, that of including the elements of a liberal education—preparation for

citizenship and the use of leisure, as well as training for productive efficiency. Because of the general neglect by both elementary and secondary schools, there is also a great need for educating workers as consumers, giving information and training in the purchase and use of food, clothing, and other economic necessities.

#### (2) NECESSITY FOR SPECIALIZED MANUAL SKILLS

In most of the non-professional callings, there must be developed various specialized skills in manipulation. This requires the equipment and opportunity for much shop, office or field practice, practical work involving the use of materials and much repetition in operations and processes until accuracy and speed are developed approximating productive standards. This involves expense and problems in the disposal of products not included in training for professional callings.

#### (3) LITTLE CONTACT WITH PEOPLE—INDIVIDUALISTIC WORK

The professional callings require much contact with people—the work all deals with personal or human relationships. Many of the non-professional callings are relatively individualistic. The work is chiefly with materials and calls for individual, technical manipulations.

#### (4) FLUCTUATIONS IN CHARACTER AND LOCATION

There is relatively much greater fluctuation in the non-professional callings. This fluctuation is of two types, that of the character of the work itself, and that of the location and quantity of work. Relatively the professions are conservative and change but slowly. The professional worker usually becomes identified with a given location and community, building up permanent social contacts and relationships. Inventions, discoveries and new types of organization occasion almost constant change in the character of industrial and commercial work, and the shifting of centers of production and the numerous adaptations to meet changing needs give a mobility and a fluctuation not usual in the professions. This factor in the productive and distributive occupations imposes a need for the development of adaptability which did not exist in the days of apprenticeship and a more domestic type of industrial production and distribution.

## (5) OPPORTUNITIES FOR CHILD LABOR AND EXPLOITATION OF WORKERS

The professional callings offer little opportunity for work by children, and all require ability and training of a relatively high order. In the organization and division of labor in modern industrial life, there are many kinds of remunerative work which require very little ability or training, and which may be accomplished as well by children in their teens as by adults. This fact puts the school and the larger well-being of society as represented by efficient citizenship into sharp competition with remunerative occupations for the plastic, formative years of adolescent youth. Only by social pressure for a more far-sighted economic and social policy can this call for child labor and this exploitation of child life be controlled.

## (6) LITTLE TESTING OF APTITUDES BEFORE ENTRANCE TO VOCATIONS

In the professional callings, the long period of preliminary liberal education and the definite professional training serve as a partial testing and sifting process whereby the fitness of the individual for the work he proposes to undertake may be somewhat estimated in advance. Success in his preparatory work is some measure of probability of success in the occupation to be followed. Failure usually means elimination. There is thus a type of automatic vocational guidance, although it is often bungling and but partially effective. In the non-professional callings, however, entrance upon this or that kind of work is often wholly a matter of chance. When the need for work comes almost any job that is offered is taken. The chances for failure or success are about even. The process of trial and failure or success is begun. One failure after another may follow at the cost of inefficient work to the employer, poor service to the public, and waste of effort, discouragement and the habituated attitude of mediocre worth to the worker.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

From the foregoing characteristics of non-professional work, there evolve certain very definite implications for the direction and development of vocational education for these callings.

## (1) THE PROBLEM IS ONE FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The problem is clearly one for the period of secondary education, covering the years from thirteen or fourteen to eighteen or

twenty. Vocational education to be of most general value must begin before the vocation is entered. By the census of 1910, over eighty-five per cent of all persons in the United States engaged in gainful occupations were occupied in vocations entered by a majority of the workers in their teens.

(2) VOCATIONAL ACTIVITIES SHOULD BE INTRODUCED EARLY

To meet this problem comprehensively, there must be included in the schools for pupils of twelve years and upward courses designed to give work of appreciable worth in relationship to vocational needs. Many pupils who could not otherwise be retained in school will remain if they are given some training which will make for direct increase in efficiency when they go to work.

(3) DIFFERENTIATED COURSES SHOULD BE OFFERED

There should be provision for the early partial differentiation of pupils on the basis of aptitudes, interests and probable length of stay in school. By the beginning of the seventh grade period, school work, if it at all adequately reflects the life activities outside of school, should have revealed with some degree of significance the dominant aptitudes and interests of pupils. These, taken into account with economic and other home conditions of pupils, should enable teachers and parents to aid the pupil in a selection of work for subsequent years which will be of both general educational value and of rather definite vocational worth. Differentiation should be only partial for several years, but selections from the beginning should be made on the basis of definite, clearly appreciated needs. While pupils having college entrance in view might well begin the study of a foreign language in the seventh grade, those expecting early to enter industry should elect an industrial subject instead, and those inclined toward commercial work should have opportunity to begin work preparatory to this field rather than take industrial studies or those leading primarily to college entrance. With each succeeding year, the number of elective courses in each field should be increased so that the pupil may approach the time of entrance upon his vocation with increasing emphasis upon the life career motive. The junior high school with its flexible courses of study is the response which the schools are formulating to meet this situation. The plan promises much for the period of early adolescence.

**(4) THE LIBERAL ARTS SUBJECTS SHOULD BE MODERNIZED**

To modernize education in general, there is need for a very marked reorganization of the usual academic subjects throughout the public school system to make them all contribute more directly to the solution of problems of present day life. History, civics, geography, English, mathematics, and science studies may all select those problems and aspects of their respective fields which throw light upon or which are practically usable in the occupations of people engaged in productive or distributive enterprise.

**(5) THE LATER YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL SHOULD BE VOCATIONAL**

The latter years of the high school period, those coming to be known as the senior high school, representing the years of life between fourteen or fifteen and seventeen or eighteen, may well be organized as definitely vocational, or at least dominantly influenced in their organization by vocational motives. This organization, broadly considered, would include a liberal arts division, made up to meet the needs of those preparing for higher institutions and chiefly having in prospect entrance into professional callings; an industrial division, organized to give preparation as intensive as possible for industrial callings to be entered immediately upon leaving school; a commercial division to prepare for immediate entrance to callings in the commercial field; and an agricultural division for similar preparation for entrance upon agricultural work. In each of these divisions there may well be organizations of courses primarily to meet the needs of women desiring to enter wage-earning occupations. It is assumed that all girls will regard as fundamental a preparation for home making, and that, whatever other vocational motive may determine their selection of work, they will include home-making courses as an essential supplementary group of studies. It is also assumed that parallel with the vocational studies in each of these divisions there will be a well balanced selection of liberal arts subjects organized in terms of the civic and social needs of present day life. In each division, also, a selection of courses should be possible which would make a foundation for entrance into still more advanced study of the chosen field in colleges or technical institutions. While such a fully comprehensive plan is not possible to all communities, each community may select groups of studies for emphasis which meet its own

particular needs. By abandoning the ghosts of tradition, the secondary school may be made to adapt its offerings to any community, whatever these needs may be. Potentially the secondary school is a thoroughly democratic and cosmopolitan institution.

(6) CONTINUATION OR VOCATIONAL EXTENSION WORK IS NEEDED

The fact that great numbers of young people enter upon wage-earning before the completion of a secondary school course and an even greater number before finishing the elementary school requires that provision be made for continuation or part time education for those at work. For workers not yet physically mature, this should be day school study. For men and women of maturity, evening school work may be engaged in without the dangers to physical and moral health and growth to which adolescents are subjected by evening school attendance. Such supplementary education needs to be exceedingly flexible in its offerings. For many workers there are immediately practical vocational problems which may be met by supplementary school courses covering from four or five to eight or ten hours each week. Very often the most desirable organization of such work is on the basis of short units each of which meets an immediate and pressing demand of the worker and each of which would increase his daily efficiency and earning capacity. In a number of states legal provision has been made for the public support of continuation school pupils who are at work but who are excused from work several hours each week to attend the school. If the occupation entered is satisfactory and is to be permanent, the continuation school work should directly supplement it in order to make for direct and increased efficiency in it. If the work is but temporary and it is desired to prepare the student for some other vocation, school work should be provided which will make a later transfer into the chosen vocation relatively easy and progress rapid after entrance.

In continuation school work, either day or evening, there is a large demand for courses in the general education subjects. The elementary school work in English, mathematics, geography, history and science are not found adequate. While the cost of evening work in addition to day school work places a large burden of taxation upon the community, it is the penalty society should pay for its failure to adjust itself to modern conditions without child labor.

Great as is the cost, it is a good investment, both economically and socially. Little that is general in the detailed direction of supplementary day or evening school work may be said, as each community must study its own problems and needs and adjust and adapt its offerings to meet these community needs.

#### THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The junior high school, consisting of the seventh, eighth and ninth grades, is rapidly responding to the needs of those pupils who enter wage-earning occupations in their early teens. It does this by offering in the seventh and following grades an election of work among several practical courses, usually industrial, commercial, and agricultural. The amount of elective work in any one of these fields, perhaps not more than two school periods each day in the seventh year, is increased in the eighth and still more in the ninth year, where it may receive half time. Parallel with these practical courses are closely related supplementary courses and courses continuing the general education of the earlier grades. In the industrial field, the work may be distributed over wood-working, metalworking, concrete construction, electrical wiring and installation, printing and some other forms of industrial activities, or it may concentrate intensively upon but one or two of these lines. A combination of these methods is most common, the pupil taking one or two short units in each field in first, or first and second years and as a result of this trying-out or testing of his aptitudes and interests selecting for intensive study during the remainder of his course the kind of work for which he is best adapted. If he leaves school at the end of the three years he may enter wage-earning as a helper with a foundation making him more immediately useful and also enabling him to advance more rapidly than without this training. With his practical shop work he has had some supplementary work in industrial mathematics, industrial drawing and design, and industrial science. He has come to see the worth and possibilities of school work in vocational preparation, and, if opportunities for continuation or vocational extension work are offered by the school, he will usually make every effort to attend and will continue to grow in efficiency and in earning capacity. In the commercial or agricultural fields the plan may operate as in the industrial.

Schools have developed in a number of states under such names as, "vocational schools," "intermediate industrial schools," "trade schools" and "shop schools," which offer courses of two or three years in length somewhat approximating the foregoing description. But these are usually limited to industrial vocations, and, in most cases, they are separated quite fully from the "regular" schools, and tend rather to neglect the continuation of the general education so much needed by industrial workers. The Vocational School for Boys and the Manhattan Trade School for Girls of New York City; the Saunders Trade School of Yonkers, New York; the Intermediate Industrial School of Cleveland, Ohio; the two years' course of the Dickinson High School of Jersey City, New Jersey; the Shop Schools of Rochester, New York; the day industrial schools of Massachusetts and the industrial continuation schools of Wisconsin are variants of this type. The Shop Schools of Rochester, New York, are of special interest because of the definite, written, three-party agreement entered upon. Here there is full coöperation between the school and the industries. The school, the employer and the pupil enter into an agreement, the employer to provide a certain amount of work and training each week, paying a specified wage for the work, the school to supplement this with certain related courses and general subjects, and the pupil to enter appropriately into both phases of the work.

From most of the schools of the foregoing general type, the pupil enters the vocation for which he has been preparing as helper or apprentice with some credit or advanced standing which reduces from one to two years the time for attaining the rating of journeyman.

#### THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

In the period following the junior high school, or in the usual second, third and fourth years of high school, more definitely specialized vocational courses in industrial, commercial and agricultural fields may well be offered for those not expecting to enter more advanced institutions. Here fully half of the time, or even more than half, may be devoted to shop, office, or field practice and closely related technical or supplementary subjects. Where possible, the most satisfactory organization is the coöoperative plan, examples of which are found at Fitchburg, Massachusetts, New York City and Cincinnati, Ohio. By this plan, the shop or office work is done

in commercial plants or offices. The usual method is to pair the students, one spending a given week at work, the other in school, alternating the week following, and so on, week about. The school is then relieved of the expensive equipment, material and teaching staff for practical work and devotes its time to the supplementary technical and general phases of the student's education. A co-ordinator, spending a part of his time in visiting and organizing the sequence of problems in shop or office, and a part in visiting and aiding in the organization of problems in the school, attempts to secure a unity between practical work and school work that makes each supplement and support the other. If this coöperative arrangement with employers is not possible, then the school must provide the shop, office, or field practice for the development of working skill and knowledge in the respective fields. A typical and excellent example of a four years' vocational course for industrial workers fully provided in all its aspects as a part of the school's work is that of the Dickinson High School of Jersey City, New Jersey. From three to four years of practical shop work are offered in each of the more important woodworking and metalworking industries. With these are extensive technical courses in drawing, mathematics and science, and some work in general, liberalizing subjects. Graduates of this school may quickly attain journeyman standing in the vocations for which they have prepared because of the intensive shop training and the extensive range of technical knowledge they have received from the several courses.

The variety in which any school system may reasonably offer specialized vocational courses is a matter of local demand. In all but the very largest industrial and commercial communities no specific course should be offered until a survey of the given occupation is made in the community and the annual requirement for new workers shown to be sufficiently large to justify a class whose graduates would be absorbed by the demand. If coöperative courses are possible, the school may support the work with smaller classes than if the practical work also must be provided by the school.

The manual training and technical high schools, though originally developed with the expectation that they would attract many students for vocational preparation, have become very largely preparatory schools for colleges of engineering and tech-

nology. Because of the excellent technical training in subjects related to shop work, those more enterprising students who do enter industry after graduation from these schools often rise rapidly to positions as foremen or to other directive positions requiring this technical knowledge. A considerable number of boys who have graduated from the technical high schools of Cleveland, Ohio, and Springfield, Massachusetts, have entered industry and have been promoted to positions of directive responsibility. The manual training or technical high school does not, however, seem to promise much for those whom we may call the privates in industry. They are rather for the non-commissioned officers of industrial organization. The vocational school for the great masses of workers must not demand so much of the more highly technical nor unrelated general material, but dwell more intensively upon the practical and closely related supplementary work. Yet, while laying due emphasis upon the vocational problems and processes, they need not crowd out other activities that have an indirect bearing upon practical efficiency and a very direct bearing upon civic and social efficiency as a whole.

#### PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The beginnings of vocational education in this country for both industrial and commercial work have been conducted quite apart from the public schools. The mere mention of the business colleges is sufficient to recall the earlier history of vocational training for commercial work. By reference to the work of such institutions as Pratt, Wentworth, Drexel, Stout, Armour, Lewis, Hampton, and Tuskegee Institutes, the various mechanics' institutes, and Bradley and other polytechnic institutes, all offering courses preparatory to entrance or to more advanced work in industrial vocations, we see the beginnings and perhaps the most comprehensive development of vocational education for non-professional vocations. Their work, on the whole, has been better adapted to the needs of young men and women beyond the secondary school stage than for early adolescents. In attempting to develop secondary work in public schools by imitating these institutions we may have a reason for the narrowness and mediocre success of some secondary schools. The almost exclusively practical and technical character of the work of these institutions can not be brought

down to the needs of boys in their earlier teens without much adaptation. However, these institutions have served and are serving a very real need in their vocational preparation of mature students. They suggest the need, in many communities, for similar institutions in which work may be offered following that of the industrial courses in the senior high school. For those desiring preparation for entrance to the more highly skilled types of mechanical work we have very few institutions under public support. The "Middle Technical Schools" of Europe serve as excellent models for this development in America. In a considerable number of fields America must still go to Europe for highly skilled workmen. In almost any manufacturing city in this country with a population of over 100,000 not having a privately supported mechanics' institute, a school of this type would be an investment that would yield substantial dividends to the community.

#### PRESENT TENDENCIES AND OPPORTUNITIES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

At present, the whole trend in American public education is to relate the work in the school more closely to the significant aspects of life outside of the school. The greater enrichment of the elementary school curriculum is to be attained by making its problems and interests a true reflection of the problems and activities of everyday life, vocational, civic, and social. In just the measure that school activities are made representative of vocational activities will school performance become an index of probable vocational performance and the school work itself a practical means of vocational guidance. With the possibility for work in the junior high school that appeals to the vocational aptitudes and interests of pupils, and work that is so closely related to vocational needs that its worth is appreciated by parents, the holding or retaining influence of the school will be markedly increased. With the courses giving more and more time each succeeding year to preparation for entrance upon work with advanced standing and increased earning capacity, no child will wish to withdraw, and no parent will permit withdrawal before the work is completed except for the most pressing economic necessity. By safeguarding all vocational courses with supplementary work providing adequate training for citizenship and for the profitable use of leisure, the increased individual efficiency

of the workers and the consequent increase of social efficiency, wealth, and solidarity will make the development of vocational education a public investment which will bring large economic and social returns. In vocational education, the American public school has a large opportunity and responsibility in the further development of efficient democracy. Until its offerings for the preparation of workers in non-professional vocations are as adequate as for those in the professions, it will fail in its avowed purpose to provide equality of opportunity.

## MANUAL LABOR AND THE ACHIEVEMENT OF NATIONAL IDEALS

BY B. H. CROCHERON, M. S. A.,

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We are emerging from our first conquest: we have conquered the lands. Farms stretch from coast to coast so that desert and forest push back to the corners of the continent. Our second conquest will be of machines. Already the wheels of industry turn almost of themselves while unlimited power from the turbines streams over wires to distant cities. So great have been our conquests, so many are the powers harnessed to industrial life that the casual on-looker may be brought to conclude industrial labor has been abolished by the accumulated knowledge and surplus property laid up for us by generations of the past and present. The man who lives in cities is likely to travel little and to see little because his routine by its security and monotony starves out all adventurous instinct. So the city man, traveling between his home and the office or store, complacently dwells upon this as the age of the mind and of machines. He charms himself into the belief that the time is here when man will no longer earn his living by the sweat of his brow but rather will sit in Jovian contemplation of a perfected mechanism which will turn the wheels of agriculture, of commerce, of manufacture and of trade.

### THE MASSES LIVE BY COMMON TOIL

The truth is that the world still labors by muscle not by mind. The farmer tills his lands from early morning till late at evening, trudging home at sunset wet with sweat. The miner astride his quivering drill knocks down his tons of ore and gasping comes up from his shift to change sodden clothes for dry. The mill worker and mechanic with flying hands and fingers beat through the day and at night go out the gates tired of muscle and of brain. It would be well if those street-car and subway philosophers who derive their image of America from across desk tops and the penny papers could make a tour of adventure and of exploration to the mills of their town, the farms that lie about it and the mines in the

nearby hills. They would there find that manual labor is the means by which America lives and that men not machines are still the contact points with nature. And it is well that it is so. A new and terrible degeneracy would no doubt creep in when the world sat down to watch nature do its work. For man, mechanics is only an assistant, not a substitute. Manual labor must remain the heritage of the masses, their birthright to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow.

#### THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF MANUAL LABOR WELL DONE

Education must emphasize the need of manual labor and the desirability of doing that labor so well that it will produce abundantly for the needs of the individual and society. In the last century of America formal education has become universal but it still clings to the ideals of the fortunate few to whom it was originally restricted; those members of the non-laboring class who were to do the planning, not the working, for the race. Education must aim at the heart of the problem by teaching that manual labor is necessary and therefore honorable and that education is a means whereby manual labor becomes more effective. Educators have long embraced the theory that the province of education is to deal with higher things than mere labor; that labor must come soon enough for the masses of children; and that, therefore, the brief time in schools must be made a vacation period for the hands while the brain takes its short and final exercise from whence, perforce, it must come to rest when school days end and work begins. It seemed to them imperative that the children of the masses should participate for a time in that realm of thought and of scholasticism to which they will probably never have an opportunity to return. As a result some complained that schools were incompetent, that they had no relation to real life and that educators were theorists and dreamers. Meanwhile there sprung up a host of office boys, clerks, odd-job men, hangers-on and others who had come through the school system to find the world a place wherein they were required to do something for a living and to do it by hand as well as by brain.

#### OCCUPATIONAL ELEMENTS IN THE CURRICULUM

Only lately have persons grudgingly admitted that schools should have some relation to occupation; that schools should be the training ground for work as well as for thought; and that manual

labor on farms, in mines, in mills and shops must be the heritage of the many who attend the public schools. In response to the demand for this occupational work, courses in manual training, home economics and agriculture have crept into the school systems and some persons are bold enough to term these courses "vocational." In truth few of them are yet really vocational because they do not train for a vocation. Rather do they seem to give to the student a very limited amount of manual dexterity and thought familiarity in these subjects. Manual training courses in the school do not train mechanics, home economics courses do not train housekeepers, nor do agricultural courses train farmers. Much manual training still putters with tiny tables and jig-saw work. Many home economics courses peter out in sticky candies badly made and impossible aprons poorly sewn. Most agricultural courses specialize in tiny gardens and never get out to the fields and farms.

Some of the best vocational and industrial teaching in America was the earliest. When General Armstrong created the first real industrial school in America at Hampton in 1868 and thereby cut the Gordian knot of education, he established a school which was truly vocational in that he trained men and women for daily work and turned out therefrom a finished product. From uneducated labor Hampton makes farmers, bricklayers, carpenters and mechanics. Hampton is a vocational school. Such schools are only possible, however, where they are regarded as the essential form of education by those who are to be educated and by those who have the schools in charge. For real vocational education in manual pursuits there is not yet wide demand from the common folk or from the educators. Both the people and the pedagogues have received their education in schools of the old academic type; they are therefore likely to regard the old type which trained away from labor as the only real education. Many schools have been founded upon the fond dream that they were to train for life's elemental occupations only to find their trend changed by the men who had their direction or by the people among whom they were to work.

#### TRADITION AND PEDANTRY IN EDUCATION

The truth is that the mass of persons whom manual schools would benefit do not want such schools. They still desire to have their children study in the direction which to them means learning.

Schools for the manual vocations, they believe, may be desirable for negroes and Indians and perhaps for the people in the next town or even possibly for their neighbors' children—but for their own children, never. These, they think, are destined for higher and better things. The public tolerates and even patronizingly advocates a smattering of so-called "manual training" or "agriculture" provided it does not displace foreign languages or abstract mathematics; but the people of America who vote do not desire real vocational training in the manual trades given to their own children. Real manual education has therefore only been successful among two classes of persons, first, among the subject races and peoples such as negroes, Indians and public charges and, second, among the rich governing class whose foresight and experience in large affairs have shown to them the need of manual education for their sons. The schools for dependents and the expensive private schools, such as the wonderful country life schools of England and Switzerland, have thus far been the conspicuous successes in training in manual work.

The rise and development of agricultural education are an example of the pressure which public opinion exerts toward emasculating all attempts to give real and practical public training for manual labor. The Morrill Act passed by Congress in 1863 set aside public lands for the support of colleges teaching agriculture and the mechanic arts. Certainly the act contemplated a practical education that would fit men to become farmers and mechanics. But today no agricultural college in America pretends to give more than a smattering of farm practice despite the fact that there are more town than farm boys in the agricultural colleges. The agricultural colleges turn out excellent technologists in agriculture and its related sciences. Some of these become farmers but they learn farming elsewhere, although they study agriculture at college. From 1905 to 1915 many states created secondary agricultural schools which were planned to give very practical farm training to farm boys. Extensive systems of such schools were introduced in Wisconsin, Minnesota, Virginia, Georgia and other states. But public demand forced these schools to devote much time to the academic subjects and in turn to minimize their attention to the practical phases of farming. The schools thus either became

academic with a smattering of text-book and laboratory study of agriculture or they were forced to the wall.

#### THE DUTY OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

Because the people of America do not want manual education for their children, the burden is the greater upon educators and other leaders of public opinion to persistently call to the attention of the public, whose ear they have, that public manual education is a necessity for the present and future good of society. We must teach and preach that "easy living" cannot be the lot of all and therefore it is unsocial and immoral for those who have not earned it. We must glorify manual labor by treating it fairly and squarely. We must educate manual labor by teaching it to labor better and more efficiently. We must hold forth manual work as a vocation which pays better in life and living than a clerkship. The farm has more of life than the ribbon-counter; the machine shop pays better wages than the bank-cage.

Public opinion can also be led and directed by means of a few privately-supported schools which are independent of public opinion. Schools like Hampton leap the entire gap in education by frankly and efficiently training American boys—not Indians, nor negroes, nor public dependents—but American boys of good stock for successful work in manual occupations. Such schools if successful become popular by the superior ability of their graduates to earn money in the trades and in turn serve as beacon lights for the slowly following public opinion and public education.

Public schools training for life—which is training for work—will make boys better farmers, better laborers, and better mechanics. By so doing they will save America.

## EDUCATION FOR HOME LIFE ON THE FARM

BY JESSIE FIELD, M.S.,

Town and Country Secretary, National Board of Young Women's Christian Associations of the United States.

Country life can advance just as fast as its homes reach their best. Everyone knows that a country home at its best is the finest type of home in the world. And some country homes have reached this ideal these days when modern conveniences and comforts are as available in the country as in the city and they have come into a great heritage of reality and beauty and richness of life and spirit. On such homes as these, the new kind of country community has arisen where the chance that comes to the boys and girls surpasses that to be found anywhere else. Of course, the great majority of country homes have not come into their own and yet the past few years have seen a great wave of progress come in this special line. Naturally, perhaps, the economic side of things about country life interested people first but we soon saw as a farmer expressed it: "It's not much use to grow better corn and live stock to get more money, if we can't use that money to make better homes. And how are we going to have better homes if we don't train the girls for it?" And it is a big step in our development of country life that we have come to recognize the fundamental importance of training for home life in order that we may make our homes all that it is possible for them to be in the country.

### THE BETTER EQUIPMENT OF THE MODERN FARM HOME

Not long ago I went to visit some country friends of mine. The man had just put up a new barn and wanted me to see it before dark. I hurried into the house to speak to the lady and saw they had electric lights. Before I had a chance to say anything about them, however, I went on out to see the new barn. It was a very modern, convenient barn. The man stepped inside the door and turned on electric lights all over it, even in the top of the wheat bin. "Well," I said, "this is surely up to date. Electric lights in your barn, too." Then he looked down and laughed and said,

"Yes, you see that is the way we happened to have them up at the house. The contractor said it wouldn't cost but a little extra to run them on up to the house." That is the way our whole country life movement is turning these days. It is "running on up" to the home.

#### THE COUNTRY SCHOOL AND THE COUNTRY HOME

All live country schools these days are giving training in the art of home making. From the well-equipped laboratories of the consolidated schools and the simple practical teaching of cooking and sewing in one-room country schools, much of which is done in home kitchens, the girls are going out better fitted to do their work in country homes skillfully and efficiently.

The Mendota Beach School, out from Madison, Wisconsin, is a sample of a one-room country school which in the past few years has put in a sewing machine and a simple equipment for teaching cooking and where, with the help of the mothers of the community who come in on Friday afternoons, a helpful and thorough course in home making is being given.

Miss Agnes Samuelson, the county superintendent of Page County, Iowa, has issued a printed course of study in home making, thirty-two lessons, which are followed by the one hundred and thirty country teachers in that county with splendid results.

At the Oak Ridge School, the demonstration rural school of Winthrop Normal, Rock Hill, S. C., taught by Mrs. Hetty Browne, hot lunches are served, the material for which is partly furnished from the school garden. This idea of serving something warm at noon in country schools has become quite general throughout the United States and is one of the most practical ways in which boys and girls are trained for home life.

#### CORN AND CANNING AND OTHER CLUBS

Side by side with country schools as a great educational agency are the clubs which are promoted through the state and nation and the splendid extension work done from our state universities and colleges of agriculture. Canning and gardening clubs, sewing and cooking clubs, with the instruction and the contests and exhibits that go with them, have done great things to arouse interest and to set standards among country girls in their education for home life. The girl who has cleared a hundred dollars on a tenth of an acre of

land, will not only use the money to get further training, but realizes that she has already mastered much that will help her make a better home and which will help her to decide to make her home in the country. A girl who enters in a bread judging contest gets in her mind a standard about bread which will never leave her satisfied again with sour, soggy bread. The girl who has seen the even stitches and the straight seams on the prize apron will always make her clothing more neatly after that. No one can measure the great educational value of these clubs, contests and exhibits. They should always stand side by side with the schools and be used to the utmost. They hold a great power for reaching and helping in a practical way in our training for home life on the farm.

#### MUSIC, ART AND LITERATURE IN THE FARM HOME

But there is something more than skill in cooking and sewing and in the science of home making that is needed. Into the home life on the farm there must come the joy and gladness of life; those who live there must see the blue of the sky and hear the song of the birds and share in the beauty around them. They must find there, how they may have a share in all the riches of the world—riches of music and literature and art. And with all this there must come the happy sharing of it all with neighbors. This is coming, too, these days in many country homes and we find every educational agency helping to bring it about. The State Normal of Kansas, at Emporia, sends out by parcels post victrolas and records with an interesting descriptive talk in regard to them to all country schools in the state desiring them. Many country schools have taken advantage of this. Many county libraries are being established now which bring good books within the reach of every country child. Most country schools have small libraries of their own and in almost every state, the state library commission furnishes free traveling libraries. Courses of reading are recommended, including a very good one, which is outlined by the United States Bureau of Education and for the completion of which a certificate is given.

#### SOCIAL SOLIDARITY IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

With all these things, we are growing into a new community consciousness and country people are getting together more. Country girls are having camps, country boys are going to short courses

at the agricultural colleges. Some communities have neighborhood dinners in honor of the new renters when they arrive in March. There is coming to be a fine unselfishness which puts the good of the whole community above the good of any one person. Many country people are coming to be like the farmer in the coöperative creamery, who shook his head when his check came, fearing it was too much and saying: "You see it wouldn't be right for me to have too much for it would have to come out of my neighbors." With such a spirit in a community, we may well hope for great things for the country homes there.

#### "THE HOUSE BY THE SIDE OF THE ROAD"

Recently at the Eastern Tennessee Farmers' Convention, I heard one of the ten thousand country club girls in Tennessee recite "The House by the Side of the Road." She was a girl who had made a great record in canning. She had listened with intense interest that day as the teacher told how to draft patterns. I am sure she had done good work in her country school. And as she stood there so straight and wholesome, with her eyes shining and a radiant, unselfish look in her face, I knew she had caught this other greater thing, too, and that she would use all she had learned to make the country home she would have some day, "A House by the Side of the Road" that would be of service to her neighborhood and to all who came that way. The education for home life on the farm which is genuine and really worth while will develop in the heart of every girl and boy a wholesome and happy

#### COUNTRY LIFE CREED

I am glad I live in the country. I love its beauty and its spirit. I rejoice in the things I can do as a country child for my home and my neighborhood.

I believe I can share in the beauty around me—in the fragrance of the orchards in spring, in the bending wheat at harvest time, in the morning song of birds, and in the glow of the sunset on the far horizon. I want to express this beauty in my own life as naturally and happily as the wild rose blooms by the roadside.

I believe I can have a part in the courageous spirit of the country. This spirit has entered into the brook in our pasture. The stones placed in its way call forth its strength and add to its strength a song. It dwells in the tender plants as they burst the seed-cases that imprison them and push through the dark earth to the light. It sounds in the nesting notes of the meadow-lark. With this courageous spirit I too can face the hard things of life with gladness.

I believe there is much I can do in my country home. Through studying the best way to do my every-day work I can find joy in common tasks done well. Through loving comradeship I can help bring into my home the happiness and peace that are always so near us in God's out-of-door world. Through such a home I can help make real to all who pass that way their highest ideal of country life.

I believe my love and loyalty for my country home should reach out in service to that larger home that we call our neighborhood. I would join with the people who live there in true friendliness. I would whole-heartedly give my best to further all that is being done for a better community. I would have all that I think and say and do help to unite country people near and far in that great Kingdom of Love for Neighbors which the Master came to establish—the Master who knew and cared for country ways and country folks.

## TRAINING FOR RURAL LEADERSHIP

BY JOHN M. GILLETTE, PH.D.,  
Professor of Sociology, University of North Dakota.

The question of leadership in rural life has assumed much importance during the course of the discussion that has taken place and the investigations which have been made relative to country life problems during the past few years. Quite in agreement with the findings in other fields of human effort the importance of the personal factor has emerged as the problems of rural communities have become better understood. The traditional tendency, to elevate the personal factor above all other elements in the situation, first asserts itself when new social problems arise and men turn their attention toward discovering solutions; it is asserted that it is inconsequential to change the form of organization, since if individuals are right all will be well. The radical reaction from this view consists in the stressing of organization; the attitude being assumed that if the perfect form of organization can be found and adopted the social utopia will have been realized. But eventually the intelligent conclusion is reached that since society is an assembly of organizations which human beings use to realize their interests, neither the human nor the structural factors can be disregarded but that a greater perfection of institutions is a necessary attainment for the realization of more perfect men.

To generalize, it may be asserted that the attitude of the rural population concerning its own problems has run the course of these three stages. The first attitude was the passive one of taking dogmatic teaching for granted and allowing things to drift. When the rural problem arose in its full significance, almost the entire emphasis was placed on organization, so that reorganization became the shibboleth, and the economic factor received almost exclusive consideration. But with the passage of time the farmers have become wiser and, imbued with a larger degree of humanistic sentiment, they are now discussing what sort of institutions will turn out the best men and women. And it is very significant that the perception has gradually arisen that a rural leadership is an indispensable means to the attainment of permanent improvement.

### THE MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

The significance of leadership cannot very well be observed until a somewhat definite meaning is attached to the term. The necessary implication of the word may be brought into perspective by the use of particular cases. A dirty urchin and an aristocratic lady alike exercise the function of leadership in respect to a dog through the instrumentality of a chain, in which cases physical superiority and necessitous instincts play the chief rôle. Superficially, the gaily attired drum major marching at the head of a band is the epitome of the leader, for does not the band go where he leads and does it not respond to his spectacular gyrations? Yet the cynical doubtless would assert that he exercises less influence over the band than on the minds of the spectators and that his chief asset resides in his gay uniform and spectacular movements. Then there is the body of troops who under its commander goes through the manual of arms, and performs all sorts of field maneuvers, filing right and left, marching and countermarching. Surely the commander is the genuine leader. But so far, he is only a drill master and the responses which his troops make are purely formal and mechanical, not due to individual initiative and foresight, but to the will of a superior officer clothed with absolute authority.

Thus by a process of exclusion and assent we arrive at the point where it is seen that leadership must be invested with certain characteristics and qualifications which enable it to exercise particular functions relative to free but susceptible human beings. I shall express in a few words what I consider the prime requisites of a productive rural leadership, namely, the power of initiative, organizing ability, sympathy with human aims, trained intelligence, and vision or outlook. That these qualifications must be present in the individual who assumes the function of leadership, at least to a measurable degree, and that their absence in a working form from all of the inhabitants of any given community precludes the possibility of the manifesting of any resident leadership in that particular community, are statements which probably will prove acceptable to all.

### THE FUNCTION OF THE LEADER

In order that the place and function of the leader in the rural community may be intellectually visualized it may be well to depict and exposit the sociological view of the rôle of the exceptional

man in relation to society and the community. The well balanced sociological view puts the capable individual into the relationship with the concept of social progress, not making him exclusively responsible for it, as does the "great man" theory of Carlyle, not investing him with exclusive power to bring about changes in society; but constituting him a very essential factor in the realization of movements and transformations which advance collective interests. Within the scope of this limited conception, then, that part of progress which is due to direct human intervention is brought about by the few human beings who constitute the innovating class. By reason of their inborn capacity and developed ability they constitute an exceptional class. Out of this class arise the inventors, discoverers, creators of all kinds of new ideas whether social or "material." Without this class of innovators the structure of society would remain relatively fixed and the readjustments which are essential to secure a greater measure of satisfaction would not take place.

In striking contrast with this small class the great mass of human beings living in any particular society are regarded as static relative to society. Were the affairs of society to be left with them exclusively, they would forever remain as they are and have been, except for the perturbations set up by means of other agencies. Instead of having innovating, creating minds, these people are endowed with imitating minds. They are able to follow example, to fashion after the models already produced, but not to initiate, in the sense of projecting the new. As a consequence the preponderating majority of people are followers only.

In seeking to apply this conception, which, I think will be agreed, essentially depicts the historic situation, it at first thought might be concluded that if a community possessed no rare individuals of the first class it could not hope to make progress, unless happily it could borrow innovators. This makes necessary a closer inspection of the second, the imitating class, to discover if the case is that extreme, and fortunately there are signs sufficient to renew our shrinking optimism. Since democracy is so largely constituted of common people it is a satisfaction to learn that there is no such thing as a "dead level" in it which is inevitable.

Recalling the statement which was previously made regarding the qualifications a leader must have—initiative, organizing ability,

sympathy, trained intelligence, outlook—it is apparent that an imitative mind may possess all of these attributes, and as a consequence it may prove serviceable as a community leader. It does not follow that a talented person could not perform a greater work, or that an effort should not be made to retain and develop all the latent talent possible in rural districts. When it is recalled that most of the businesses are operated by the imitating class and that the great majority of governmental agents have merely imitative minds, it becomes apparent that the non-creative mind may have sufficient intelligence to appreciate what has been worked out by others elsewhere and to see the advisability of taking steps to appropriate the plan on the part of its own community. This is also vision, and organizing ability; for appreciation of what has been done is vision, and the power to appropriate is organizing ability, or the ability to reinstate organizations. Beyond this there must be a reservoir of energy that speeds the work, and a sympathy with life which makes the undertaking seem desirable.

All of this assumes, of course, that somewhere there must be leaders of the creative kind, otherwise there would be no plans to borrow. And because of this we are able to see the reason why the democracy of community life is not forced to remain on a dead level. Given the creative power somewhere resident in society, and given the sympathetic, intelligent, initiating, imitative mind resident in all communities, and the power of the community, whether urban or rural, to lift itself to a higher level is provided for. As in the arena of national society the creative minds are passing down their ideas and plans to the masses of people, and the life of the whole people is thereby enabled to approximate the higher ideals of the talented class, so in rural communities the coöperative democracy may be heightened and improved by developing a resident leadership capable of appropriating the efficient plans of others.

#### POTENTIAL LEADERSHIP IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

It is a common saying that the country lacks leadership and no doubt it is true. But the same statement could be made successfully relative to the city, although it seems to have less force there. There are to be found in our cosmopolitan centers, and in lesser places also, wide areas, in some cases great aggregations of nation-

alities and submerged neighborhoods, where perhaps the most conspicuous deficiency is that of a competent and loyal leadership. When the objection is made that the interests of cities as cities are well looked after, that the ablest men in the nation are deeply interested in the direction of municipal business, it is sufficient to ask: Then why these waste places, these neglected warrens of headless populations in such centers? The existence of slums and of congested backward populations impeaches the pretended leadership in municipalities, and finds it guilty of lacking a fundamental recognition that the welfare of all alike is the interest of the city and of falling far short of just and humanitarian reconstruction.

It is possible, even likely, that, as compared with cities, there is an equal or greater amount of potential leadership in the country. The best indications point to the existence of an equal abundance of potential ability in all classes of normal people, and the conditions of life in rural districts are in favor of the country, since both advantageous conditions of health and the absence of a large percentage of the backward classes are decidedly in its favor.<sup>1</sup>

Regarding the amount of talent possessed by society generally, and therefore by country districts, we have somewhat divergent estimates. In his studies of the amount of genius in England, Galton concluded that its ratio in the population is about 1 in 4,000. Lester F. Ward, on the other hand, as a result of his analysis of European studies, estimated that there must be 1 person in every 500 who is possessed of potential ability.<sup>2</sup> By potential ability, Ward meant the undeveloped inborn talent resident in populations, the greater portion of which never manifests itself by means of creative work. In his estimation, therefore, historic genius is but a fraction of the potential supply, while with Galton it constitutes the entire supply.

Applications of the Binet test to school children with a view to discovering the proportion of exceptional children gives support

<sup>1</sup> See the writer's *Constructive Rural Sociology*, Second edition, Chap. 7, on "The Advantages and Disadvantages of Farm Life," and his forthcoming study entitled *A Study in Social Dynamics*, Table I, where the rates of natural increase for rural and urban communities are computed for the first time.

<sup>2</sup> See "The Conservation of Talent Through Utilization," *The Scientific Monthly*, Vol. I, 151-165, where the writer gives a more extended presentation of the data of these two writers.

to Ward's position. According to the reports from such investigations, unusual children number from 1 to 3 in each 100 of the school children tested, which for the population would be nearly 1 to 500. Both Ward's estimate and the latter are based on the inclusion of both sexes, while Galton's obtained for men exclusively.

According to the more liberal estimates, therefore, in rural neighborhoods having a few hundred inhabitants each, we might expect to find a number of individuals, who, if developed, would possess innovating ability. The problem, then, is one of training this talent so as to secure a due proportion of it for rural service.

As to the imitative class, since it contains the larger number of people, and since we may conclude that at least the higher grade members possess qualifications which would enable them to initiate, organize and direct community enterprises, we are warranted in concluding that the country contains an ample quota of such potential leadership. But as in the case of the potentially talented, the problem is one of arousing, educating and keeping these persons for duty in rural communities.

Up to the present time the country appears to have given the nation most of its great leaders in certain lines of life. The greatest military, political and industrial figures were, at least, country born. Potentially, their ability originated in the country. In its matured expression it bore the impress of urban manufacture. That its ultimate origin was rural may or may not reflect special credit on the country. For one thing, that origin is what would be expected when the rural population was numerically several times as great as the urban. Again, the great depository of indigenous inhabitants from whom leadership might be expected to emerge has been the country. On the other hand, it is asserted, without demonstrable certainty, in my opinion, that the matured country mind is "more original, more versatile, more accurate, more philosophical, more practical, more persevering, than the urban mind."<sup>3</sup> It must be admitted that the country is an advantageous place to rear children because of the very conspicuous absence of soliciting and demoralizing influences and of the presence of the habits of work and discipline practically every farm child is compelled to acquire.

<sup>3</sup> Scudder, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, March, 1912, p. 177.

### THE MIGRATION OF RURAL LEADERS TO THE CITY

The country is unfortunate in suffering a large loss of potential ability of both the creative and imitative kind. During the decade, 1900-1910, rural districts saw an exodus to the cities of about 3,500,000 persons, a number which amounted to about 30 per cent of the total urban growth of the decade.<sup>4</sup> This would mean an annual loss to the country of about 350,000 souls, enough to make a city of approximately the size of Kansas City. On the one side we have the pull of the city, on the other the repulsion of the country. The city attracts and fascinates what a recent writer terms the "urban-minded" individuals,<sup>5</sup> and the country being distasteful to them or seeming to offer fewer advantages, acts as a repellent factor. One reply to a questionnaire, sent to students of the University of North Dakota, seeking to ascertain what those from rural districts thought of the country, a reply from a city youth who had lived in the country for a number of years, stated: "If God will forgive me I will never go back to the country." This, however, is not representative but symptomatic, but that there is a deep-seated preference for city life is evidenced by the fact that such great numbers of retired farmers move to neighboring towns.

Many of the ablest men and women are drawn away from farm life to the city through the instrumentality of the higher institutions of learning. An investigation I made a few years ago showed that few graduates of any such schools who originally came from the country return there to live. Normal schools, state universities and state agricultural colleges almost uniformly returned evidence that their graduates of the indicated class were settling in cities almost exclusively.<sup>6</sup> Only the agricultural colleges associated with universities made much headway toward the return of such graduates to rural regions.

### THE NEED FOR RURAL LEADERSHIP

The country possesses a genuine need of a qualified leadership for many kinds of undertakings. Representing as it does nearly one-half of the national population and nearly one-fourth of the

<sup>4</sup> Gillette, *Constructive Rural Sociology*, 2d edition, Chap. 5, p. 86; Gillette and Davies, *Publications American Statistical Association*, XIV, 649.

<sup>5</sup> "Psychic Causes of Rural Migration," Ernest R. Groves, *American Journal of Sociology*, XXI, 622-7.

<sup>6</sup> *Quarterly Journal University North Dakota*, I:67-79; and *American Journal of Sociology*, XVI: 645-67.

nation's wealth, the agricultural class is the most important single industrial and social class in the United States. Because no class is as completely and loyally represented by members of another class as by those of its own, farm populations should have more trained agriculturists in Congress, and they should have a more competent agricultural representation in state legislatures than they now have. As Fiske has said, there are seventy times more farmers than lawyers in the nation but the latter are far more influential in legislative matters.<sup>7</sup> Agriculture demands leaders, having economic insight and statesmanship qualities, rightly to organize and regulate institutions to carry on marketing of produce and the extension of a fair system of rural credit in behalf of farmers. For the improvement of agriculture it requires men living on farms who understand the best methods of production and who are able both to apply their knowledge and to stimulate others to imitate. In the work of betterment of home conditions and in advancing institutions and agencies which shall help overcome rural isolation and realize a socialized country life there is an urgent call for men and women having specialized training and leadership qualities. In so far as the country needs "redemption," if it is to be "redeemed," deliverance must come from the prophets of the rural peoples themselves, because, in the last resort, only a people is able to work out its own salvation.

#### TRAINING FOR RURAL LEADERSHIP

Hence we come to the problem of how to obtain a permanent, resident leadership in and for rural communities. Up to the present time, for community purposes, the country has depended on a transient leadership from the outside in the shape of itinerant preachers and teachers, and for purposes of production, on the occasional able farmer and the visiting expert. Due reflection over the situation leads us to think that such sources will never prove sufficient or efficient, and that what the country wants most is men and women who by their training are at one with farm life and whose influence is ever present because they live in the country and have their interests there.

Several kinds of agencies may contribute toward supplying a leadership of the right kind. Our institutions of higher learning

<sup>7</sup> *Challenge of the Country*, p. 121.

must devote more attention to training men and women for country service. Those which train pastors, teachers and Y. M. C. A. workers should establish courses of instruction, the content, spirit and emphasis of which will serve to specialize their students for constructive work in rural institutions. The nature of the rural community must be emphasized, its particular problems studied, and the agencies capable of supplementing and improving agricultural life receive much consideration. When training schools renounce the absurd notion that general training courses qualify equally well for rural and urban service, a great step in advance will have been taken. Educating individuals specifically for rural service has the double advantage of qualifying them to carry on constructive undertakings and of retaining them in that service because their qualifications tend to make them ineligible for urban positions.

Much is being accomplished by the county agent and the coöperative demonstrator which the agricultural colleges have educated for country service. The various states are, especially, placing many county agents in the field and they have proved themselves helpful in furthering not only production but community undertakings of different kinds. Many states have county and city high schools which are giving instruction in agriculture and farm subjects, and the occasional state agricultural high school is a still more intensified approach to the desired goal. Summer chautauquas with their lectures and instruction on farm life and with their visiting groups of farm boys and girls; farmers' institutes; farmers' clubs, and associations of farmers' clubs; and kindred organizations are helpfully contributing to the establishment of a constructive point of view concerning farm life and its problems.

However, the institution which is needed to reach the masses of country children and to do most to create an abiding interest in rural affairs is one which is located in the rural neighborhood, which touches and ministers to the lives of the residents daily, and which, filled with an agrarian content and spirit, exercises an abiding, moulding influence on the young in the direction of rural undertakings and improvement. The consolidated rural school, with communityized building and equipment, a corps of efficient teachers, a teacherage, experimental plot, graded and ruralized curriculum, and having high school facilities as an organic part of the

socialized course of instruction, possesses the greatest power of appeal because it is articulated with actual farm life and because it is within reach of all. Such an institution should stimulate the talented class toward higher achievements, tending to command the permanent interest of some members of that class in farm life, and develop the abler members of the imitative group up to the level of their greatest efficiency. It doubtless also would accomplish for the less able individuals all that any training agency could hope to do for them.

## **HEALTH AS A MEANS TO HAPPINESS, EFFICIENCY AND SERVICE**

**BY LOUIS W. RAPEER, PH.D.,**

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Health is the first wealth and all other values rest on this. "How are you," expressed in one form or another, is one of the commonest greetings the world over. Instinctively all of us recognize that life itself is the ultimate value and that our first pursuit must be the increase of its vitality and the enrichment of its meaning. The nation or individual that loses this prime concern for health and normal physical development is doomed inevitably to a state of vital inefficiency, especially in a complex civilization where a highly artificial life conduces to vital impairment. Individual and national health and vigor are not merely natural concomitants of existence but are achievements to be attained by scientific study and strenuous endeavor. The ancient Greeks furnish the best example of a nation which added greatly to the abundance and meaning of life by continuous training in educational hygiene from infancy. The harsh demands of preparedness for possible or actual war have today led many nations to sudden consciousness of health values and of their widespread failure to achieve them.

### **INDIFFERENCE TO HEALTH PROGRAM**

The common indifference to a thoroughgoing program of educational hygiene for children and adults on the part of those, who through fortunate heredity and environment have realized both health and position, is our principal obstacle to progress. Until these fortunate variations of a complex civilization are made to understand general health and development conditions and the means to their amelioration, the democratic socialization of health and "life more abundant" will be ideal dreams. Our leaders argue, "We are healthy. We hardly ever give thought to our health. It comes about naturally. We never have to take a drop of medicine. The way to be healthy is to forget it. All that we need to learn about it will be acquired incidentally." The answer is found in the

undeniable health facts of our nation. Disraeli expressed the proper viewpoint in these words: "Public health is the foundation on which reposes the happiness of the people and the power of a country. The care of public health is the first duty of a statesman." And it may well be added as a corollary that to care for individual and family health is the first and most patriotic duty of a citizen.

In spite of marvellous scientific discoveries and achievements in the realm of health science in recent decades, we fail generally to realize how little health and normal physical development have been socialized and made a part of our common wealth. Measure by any reasonable standard of physical perfection and health at random thousand of the persons who pass on the street any day and what is the result? Learn how many, out of each thousand persons living in the community, remain at home, out of sight and unnoticed, ill and socially ineffective. Note how many of each thousand born reach maturity. Examine the children in the public schools and compute the facts. Study the efficiency of parents in the homes in bringing up healthy vigorous children so trained that they will naturally retain it throughout life. What is our actual health problem?

#### OUR HEALTH PROBLEM

The normal span of life from birth to death is about seventy years. Heredity is an important influence in determining the length of this span but environmental conditions may either play havoc with heredity or play directly into its hands. One fifth to one eighth of all the babies born in this country each year die before their first birthday. "Oh, these are the children of ignorant immigrant mothers in the slums of our great cities," the reader may exclaim; but the researches of health officers in New York City and Newark demonstrate that infant mortality is far greater in the homes of our *native-born* mothers. These astounding death losses occur all over the country and by effective efforts they may, as has been demonstrated, be reduced far below the general average of the country as a whole in even our most congested cities. What is possible in communities taken for demonstration is possible for whole states and the nation at large. One-fourth to one-sixth of all the children born each year in this country die before reaching the school age of six, and countless thousands who have survived enter our schools

so weakened and maimed by disease and physical defects that they have little chance of profiting by even the most hygienic schooling or of living to the period of productive maturity. Each year approximately a hundred thousand school children, or children of elementary and high school age who should be in school, die in this country. Half of all who are born each year are in their graves before the age of thirty—an age when as we all realize most people are just ready to contribute something to the world. Where is our boasted civilization when we fail so miserably in conserving human life?

Extensive investigation indicates that at any one time three million persons—three out of every hundred of our population—are seriously ill, losing over a billion dollars a year to themselves and to society, not to mention the loss of greater values in the richness, vitality and meaning of life itself. While we have cut down infant mortality considerably in many places, our death rate remains almost stationary because of the great and recent increase of deaths due to degenerative diseases of the heart, kidneys and other organs. Extensive examinations of employes of big business firms by the Life Extension Institute, by Dr. Kristine Mann (department store women),<sup>1</sup> and by others prove that nearly half of the workers of our indoor, city populations are low in vitality, suffer from physical defects, or harbor incipient or well-developed cases of disease. State insurance of workers against illness affords strong confirmatory data. Examinations for entrance into the army and navy add their evidence. The greatest problem faced by England in the war has been to obtain men who after a year's strenuous and scientific educational hygiene could be brought into passable physical condition for filling the trenches. Health is the first wealth; our present losses are over half preventable without great cost; we miserably fail in our first duty as individuals and as communities of citizens. These are grim, undeniable facts which we must resolutely face and vigorously attack with effective weapons.

#### SCHOOL HEALTH DATA

Medical supervision with its annual examination of millions of school children, from kindergarten to college, is today adding greatly to our knowledge of the extent to which we are providing for our

<sup>1</sup> *Journal of Public Health* for May, 1916.

children reasonable conditions of health and aiding them in the achievement of physical development. My own studies show that in any one year less than a third of our school children are free from serious ailments or remediable physical defects, not counting teeth defects ("the people's disease") which affects approximately another third of the school population. In many schools where no dental crusade has been carried on, about two thirds of the children have teeth defects; one half of these have beside their teeth defects other serious defects or diseases. It would be a conservative judgment to say that on any one day of the school year at least five million of our twenty-two million school children are in serious need of vigorous remedial measures to place them in even fairly normal condition. Dr. Thomas D. Wood of Columbia University places it at twelve to fifteen million. But even five millions of our school children taken with the other millions of the 30 per cent of our entire population (a hundred millions) under the age of twenty give us cause for national concern. Military preparedness, the sinking of the *Lusitania*, the *Titanic*, the *Eastland*, or the *Slocum*, the destruction of thousands in such fires as those of the *Iroquois*, the *Collinwood*, or *San Francisco*, are all serious, attention-seizing concerns; but the important preparedness and the important life and health losses which should command the continuous and searching scrutiny and coöperative effort of our citizens are the losses and drains on national vitality which we have so meagerly sketched above. What are we going to do about it? That is the question.

#### HEALTH PROGRESS

Well, what have we accomplished? In view of our possibilities, we must admit very little. A hundred years from now our descendants will look back upon our indifference to health conservation as we look back upon the indifference and opposition to public schools of less than a hundred years ago. A curve, or graph, showing the rise of public and private interest in, and efforts for, physical improvement would show a high mode for the ancient Greeks, an almost zero or negative height during the middle ages, a very slight and gradual rise up to a score of years ago, and an abrupt and accelerating rise in these opening years of the twentieth century. Take any manifestation of this increased attention to the first value of life you please and the result will follow closely the

general tendency of the curve. Suppose we take the increase in the number of articles in our magazines, newspapers, and books devoted to health and physical development. Most of my readers can remember when little health matter was published. This was because there were no readers of such matter and because there were practically no writers on the subject. Now all is changed. Books, magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, and like publications containing health contributions are literally crowding our book shelves and our mails. Much of this matter is not widely read and much of it is perhaps scarcely worth reading, but that health science, which has grown so magically in our research laboratories, in our hospitals, and by means of great experiments like the sanitation of Panama or the prophylactic measures of the Japanese army in the Russian war, has advanced some twenty to forty years beyond the masses of our people, no one acquainted with the facts can doubt. We need this adult schooling through all the agencies of publicity and we need a radically improved educational hygiene in connection with our public schools that will result in types of health education which will produce results.

#### RECENT HEALTH ACHIEVEMENTS

It would be profitable to realize just what advancement in health provisions has been accomplished in the last few years. The playground and recreation movement has swept across this country like fire in prairie grass. Millions are today spent along these lines where nickles were expended in 1900. The movement is already becoming scientific and is being standardized. Scientific health surveys of play and recreation for old and young are becoming every day more common. Likewise, medical inspection, school nursing, school dental-clinics, public and school baths, more sanitary school buildings with gymnasiums, sanitary drinking fountains, humidified air, scientific lighting, movable school-desk-chairs, open-air and open-window schools, the feeding of school children, care in schools for mental defectives, cripples, the blind, and other unfortunate deviates, and an enormously improved public health service in most cities and in many states—all bear witness to the rebirth of the physical consciousness of the race of which ages of asceticism, ignorant autocracy, and misdirected individualism almost robbed us. Today we are beginning to realize the prime human values, to

face our national health problems, and to lay secure foundations for personal and national physical efficiency.

#### HEALTH PROMOTION AND EDUCATION

A great surprise has been the inevitable tendency of all these reform movements to revert to the public schools. Laws may be written but only health-educated legislatures will pass them or make them sound and effective. Only health-educated "constituents," citizens at home who have had some health education and physical training, will support health legislation or live up to it when it is passed. Milk stations and other philanthropies may be provided out of the purse of Mr. and Mrs. Greatwealth but the practical instruction, not the pure milk handed out, saves the babies' lives. The general, the most radical, and most effective method of health promotion is that of education. Knowledge, habits, ideals, and appreciations, must be developed in any population which is to be superiorly fit. To develop these in an adult population is to a slight degree possible. Much is and must be accomplished through adult education. Education along any line must be a life process. But direct instruction and persuasion of adults is in a democracy almost insignificant in effectiveness as compared with the same amount of effort expended upon plastic childhood. The public school is the hope of democracy, for health as well as for citizenship.

Our federal government should require thorough annual or more frequent physical examinations of all persons from birth on, should provide and enforce thoroughgoing physical education of all persons throughout life, should control absolutely the sanitation of all our life environment, should eliminate the hereditary sub-deviates, and provide for eight hours a day of leisure and wholesome recreation as well as skilled medical attention for all persons. If these measures were taken the problems of educational hygiene would not be so great. But we have an individualistic democracy in which the person is monarch of himself and all he possesses as a property right, with few but increasing exceptions. We have not yet the hardihood nor the power of coöperation to provide and maintain vigorous, physical development agencies of a compulsory character. Yet we are going far in this direction. We give our boards of health more power today than we give our police. Public insurance, eradication of infectious diseases and their causes, pub-

lic-school health provisions, a tendency on the part of the government to require only a physically-desirable day of work from its employes and the spread of this movement in many great industries, the tendency to require health examinations before entering upon and while engaged in many kinds of public service, such as teaching, and the life-and-death authority handed over to the government in great disasters such as fires, floods, earthquakes, epidemics, and others—all point to more vigorous and commanding health direction and supervision of a compulsory character on the part of the state in the near future. But still our chief instrument of health promotion for our own good as individuals and as a nation must be the instructed and trained, self-active person.

#### THE SCHOOL'S OPPORTUNITY AND RESPONSIBILITY

There are many still who conceive of health and physical development as only a very minor care of our schools. Many ignore this aim of schooling entirely. Most schools, public and private, in this country have been erected and equipped with little attention to this aim as a prominent one in education. Our high schools, for example, almost entirely omit hygiene, "how to live," as either an elective or a required subject. Physical education and medical supervision are still in most schools conspicuous by their absence. Only a small proportion of our elementary schools teach hygiene effectively and use the better text-books made available in the last few years. Investigations of normal schools show that student-teachers do not generally get training along this line. Hygiene is absent, even as an elective, from most college curricula, notwithstanding the fact that our people schooled and unschooled continue to fall by tens of thousands before typhoid, tuberculosis, and many other preventable diseases or vitality-robbing defects!

These products of our schooling systems are the ones who are losing their precious children needlessly or are failing to strengthen and equip them for meeting the serious strains of modern complex life. Here is a woman who is the proud possessor of a Phi Beta Kappa key, obtained for superior scholarship from one of our leading universities. Her husband also achieved a similar key. They are husband and wife and they have a baby nearly a year old. That baby is almost dying of rickets. Its growth and development are permanently retarded. The cause is the poor feeding which the

mother gives it. She learned much of the mummies of Egypt, of the wars of the Romans, of the several languages required for college entrance and the bachelor's degree, of the algebra, geometry, etc., likewise required, and many other interesting and possibly attractive "disciplines" and "cultural subjects." But she didn't learn a thing about how to preserve her own or her baby's health; nor did her husband. They didn't study the duties of parenthood here today in America in a city flat; they got "training in reasoning, observation, concentration, and the technique of investigation," but they didn't get ability to observe the condition of their child, to study up on baby feeding, or to investigate, to seek authority, and to follow sound advice when the condition of their child was at last made obvious to them. They had learned many things and had surpassed most of their fellows in the process but they had failed to learn how to live healthily and their ignorance of the hygiene of their child was no more profound than their ignorance regarding their own health. True and typical examples of this kind have probably come to the attention of every reader.

Vital efficiency should stand first among the aims of education. The school as a public, universal agency, dedicated to the amelioration of the condition of all the people, must take the lead; and this it is beginning manfully to do. There is no doubt about the future development along this line! A few progressive systems have experimentally led and the many will follow. What proves successful at Newark, Gary, Boston, Los Angeles, or a single county in a great state, may soon be adopted and required of all. Educational hygiene is an important phase of our great national democratizing process.

#### EDUCATIONAL HYGIENE

The special phases of the whole school process of educational hygiene are about five in number. They are as follows:

1. Medical supervision—medical inspection, examination, cure and prevention.
2. School sanitation—a wholesome environment for every child.
3. Physical education—play, gymnastics, folk dances, physical work.
4. The teaching of hygiene—health instruction of young and old.

5. The hygiene of methods—wholesome ways of guiding children.

These five divisions in many school systems—city, county and state—are being organized under one head. The term hygiene is as broad as the terms health and physical development, and broader than the term physical education as it has come to be known. The goddess Hygieia of the ancient Greeks was solicitous for the entire physical well-being of man. Some would substitute the term physical education for educational hygiene or school hygiene but they will probably not prevail. Some insist that the field is too vast to be directed by one man and that the amount of medical, gymnastic, recreational, psychological and sanitary knowledge and training such a director would require is too vast to be expected of any one person. But the same may be said of the superintendent of schools or the head of any one of our big business corporations. We have found organization from one center generally profitable and effective. If men with medical degrees and physical education diplomas are not available, or the present course in these various lines not satisfactory for one who is to be director or supervisor of hygiene in a school system, such courses will surely be provided and suitably trained men will inevitably be forthcoming. Others would call the whole department the department of health or of health supervision. But such a designation would frequently lead to confusion both as to the scope of the department and as to whether the general city health department or the school health department were meant. The "department of hygiene" and the "supervisor of hygiene" are perhaps the most desirable designations for the schools. We need not use the term *school* hygiene any more than we would use the term school drawing or school penmanship. These departments and these supervisors in public school systems have no need for such redundancy.

We emphasize these distinctions in administration because they outline the scope, help to get the right start, and encourage sound development of this whole school movement for national health and vitality. The field is enticing and expanding. Recent discoveries in ventilation, for example, which destroy the old lack-of-oxygen and surplus-of-carbon-dioxide theory of bad ventilation on which our school houses and ventilating plants are constructed will greatly

modify this phase of school architecture and sanitation in the direction of providing perceptible movement of the air, proper humidity, and proper temperature. But our space limits keep us from expanding the five phases of the work. A six-hundred-fifty page volume recently published little more than roughly sketches the outlines of the several fields.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>*Educational Hygiene*, Edited by L. W. Rapeer, Scribner's Sons, New York.

## PLAY AND RECREATION

BY GEORGE E. JOHNSON, A.M.,

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It is less than a generation since educators began saying much about the educational value of recreation. Yet many schoolmasters of former years were sensible of its value. The able but eccentric Mr. Moody, the first principal of Dummer Academy (Mass.), so the history of that school tells us, used to regulate the school day by the tide, in order that the boys might have the best time for bathing. But with a few notable exceptions the teacher's interest in the past has been in the physical value rather than the educational value of recreation. Recuperation, not education, has been the conscious justification of school yards and recesses.

### INCREASED INTEREST IN PLAY AND RECREATION

There have been several causes contributing to the increased interest of the last few years in recreation and play. As the first of these we may mention the rapid increase in the growth of cities, and the disappearance of the play opportunities of city children. Kindliness first stimulated the attempt to provide better play opportunities than the streets could afford. But in social matters, kindliness is generally the best policy, and it was soon recognized that better play opportunities decreased the number of accidents and lessened mischief. Students began to seek additional grounds for the belief that the play facilities of children should be improved. An opportunity for this came through the child-study movement. With a more intelligent interest in children and a better understanding of their nature and needs came the realization of the truly educational and social value of play. Psychology, taking direction more and more from the study of the original tendencies and original nature of man, emphasized more and more the significance of the instinctive interests and play activities of children. Meantime, the relation of commercialized recreation to the social welfare of youth came to be more clearly recognized, and some of the more serious evils of misguided recreation, in various communities, were carefully

studied. So also came the realization of the opportunities in recreation for the social mingling of the different racial groups, and the wearing down of prejudice and increase of mutual good will and understanding, so necessary for a truly national spirit in a democracy made up of mixed races like ours.

#### AGENCIES ACTIVE IN PROMOTING PLAY AND RECREATION

Hence it came about that philanthropists, educators, parents, citizens grew more and more disturbed at the old *laissez-faire* attitude of the school and the community in the matter of recreation and play. Philanthropic societies, such as social settlements, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, boys' club organizations, and others including churches and Sunday schools, increased their efforts to provide wholesome play and recreation. Park departments were stimulated to a more efficient appeal to the people to use the parks and to bring "breathing places" to the people. Groups of men and women, eager for immediate progress and impatient of the existing slow moving agencies, formed playground associations. Municipalities, awakened to the popular need and demand, created play and recreation commissions. Meantime the schools were attempting to appeal more and more to the play interests of children in their methods of teaching, and to meet more wisely the recreational needs of their pupils. It required little pressure, in some communities, to induce boards of education to appropriate money for supervision of play and recreation, and to open the school buildings in the evening for social and recreational uses of the community.

#### TYPES OF PLAY AND RECREATION CENTERS ESTABLISHED

Naturally the type of play and recreation center that these various organizations established took color from the character of the organization developing it. The social workers established boys' and girls' clubs, settlement houses with indoor gymsnasiums, playrooms, club rooms, and the like; sometimes small outdoor playgrounds and settlement farms for summer vacation outings. The park board equipped portions of the large parks for play activities, converted small squares into playgrounds, and sometimes established so-called recreation parks, with children's playgrounds, swimming pools, athletic fields, and field houses. Recreation com-

missions most commonly established recreation parks, and small playgrounds, and concerned themselves somewhat in the oversight of commercialized recreation centers. Playground associations utilized school yards, vacant lots, small park areas, school buildings, and sometimes established recreation parks with buildings, through the financial aid of the municipality. School boards organized school playgrounds, supplied playrooms and gymnasiums, swimming pools and sometimes athletic fields. They established vacation schools in the summer, and evening social and recreation centers in the winter.

The above, in a general way, suggests how the type of center varied according to the type of administration. Which type of administration has the greatest natural advantages is a mooted question which it is not the purpose of this article to discuss at any length. But it is the purpose of the article to suggest the great natural opportunity, even responsibility of the school, in the matter of play and recreation among children and adults; and it may appropriately be shown that, in the matter of administration, the school has great and unique advantages.

#### ADMINISTRATION OF PLAY AND RECREATION

Mr. Lee F. Hanmer, Director of Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, enumerates five planks of good administration of play and recreation as follows:

1. Adequate funds
2. Competent leaders
3. Authority in proper hands in all lines of work
4. Complete control of property
5. Freedom from political control;  
To these we might add a sixth:
6. Proper coördination with other departments of the municipality.

#### THE SCHOOL AS AN AGENCY FOR ADMINISTRATION

There is no other department of civic affairs which tax payers so willingly support as the public schools. In some states, the board of education has direct taxing power, a power seldom possessed by other agencies concerned in the conduct of play and recreation. Among school officials and educators are included the larger number of those who are conversant with the needs and nature of childhood and youth, the educational and social aspects of play and recreation,

and the administrative problems involved. Boards of education have developed their organizations, differentiated their functions, and recognized the expert equally with, if not to a greater extent than, any other organization controlling play and recreation activities. School boards have long had complete control of property used in educational work. School boards are not always free from political control, but far and wide they are unquestionably more free from bad politics than any other elective bodies of equally wide civic influence. In the matter of proper coördination with other departments of the municipality, the board of education may be at a disadvantage as compared to one or another of the forms of administration mentioned; but if this is so, it is largely due to the fact that hitherto the functions of the board of education have not necessarily involved coördination with other departments of municipal government to the extent that would be necessary if it administered play and recreation. It is a weakness, if it really exists, that is easily remedied.

Thus on the administrative side, the schools seem to hold great natural advantages, and these advantages are more apparent from the fact that the administration of the public schools necessarily involves play and recreation to a large extent, whatsoever other agencies may be doing. The school cannot do its specific work without concerning itself with play and recreation. Moreover, the economical administration of play and recreation requires the use of properties under board of education control. Where play and recreation systems have been developed apart from the public school system, there have been unnecessary expenditures, duplications, or complications of responsibility and authority. With an equal outlay of money, it is safe to say that the school could do very much more, and do it very much more quickly, than any other agency that has been tried. Another matter of importance to consider is the close and intimate touch of the school with the clientele. For generations the school has been in the midst of the people, it has been the means of unification of the various groups, it has often provided the most natural and suitable accommodations for civic expression, and has grown more dear to the hearts of the people as a whole than any other social agency. It seems, therefore, that the opportunity of the public school in the matter of recreation and play among children and adults rises to a duty.

**WHAT THE SCHOOL SHOULD DO**

What should the school do? It is not possible in this brief paper to suggest adequately the things the school might and ought to do to further recreation and play among children and adults. Some things, however, may be emphasized:

*I. For Children***(1) THE RECESS SHOULD BE A PART OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM.**

—The recess in this country is as venerable as the school itself, but unfortunately in recent years, in many school systems, it has been practically abandoned, often on the grounds that evils of a moral and social nature attend it—evils, really, that a well conducted recess could avert more effectively than any other single influence. Literature suggestive of the right conduct of the recess is abundant,<sup>1</sup> and any teacher with the spirit to do it can successfully solve the recess problems. If the yard is small, it is of advantage for different classes to have their recesses in rotation. Indeed, it may be of great advantage to do so in any case.

**(2) THERE SHOULD BE AFTER-SCHOOL PLAY IN THE SCHOOL PLAYGROUNDS.**—Many schools discourage all use of the school playgrounds out of school hours. This is a great mistake for it deprives children of needed play incentives and leadership, and turns them over to the streets and vacant lots for play under far less desirable conditions than would attend after-school free play on the school premises.

**(3) THE SCHOOL SHOULD ORGANIZE PLAY.**—Well within the elementary school age come the organizing tendencies of boys and girls. It is a great mistake, however, to assume that children do or can sufficiently organize of themselves for their play. In so far as play is social (and it is that quite as truly as it is physical) there lies great advantage in a "regular team" over a scrub team. Incentives for and guidance in organization are essential for large success in the play of elementary school children. The school is the only agency that can see to it that all the children have opportunity for organized play, which, we might add, is the first great step towards national "preparedness." There should be team games for every able-bodied boy and girl of the upper elementary grades. The

<sup>1</sup> See Johnson, G. E., *What to Do at Recess*. Ginn & Co., Boston.

organizing of intra-school games is a minimum essential in our efforts for the moral and physical education of our school children, and some inter-school sports, even in elementary grades, are most desirable. This will be more apparent, doubtless, if one realizes that the number of mature and maturing boys in elementary grades actually equals or surpasses that of mature and maturing boys in the high schools. Adolescent needs cannot be wisely considered for the high school period only.

(4) **THE SCHOOL SHOULD PROMOTE AVOCATIONAL INTERESTS**, and may do so to greater advantage than any other existing form of play and recreation administration. Among these may be mentioned the following:

(a) The school can readily stimulate those activities of children that put them in intelligent and appreciative touch with nature, such as gardening, animal husbandry, collection and study of objects of nature, flowers, leaves, minerals, insects, etc., "hiking," hunting with the camera, and even outdoor life and camping. If so disposed, in these extra school activities, the school can utilize, if need be, volunteer help as well as any other organization, while it has within its corps of workers, always, some who have ability and willingness for leadership on these lines.

(b) Extra-school musical activities can readily be fostered by the school. Great success has attended inter-school competition in singing, competition between classes, glee clubs and double quartets. In Cambridge, Massachusetts, competition stimulated between high schools by the director of music has been conducted with great success under boy directors. Money earned by school orchestras has been used to purchase instruments which have been loaned to pupils who otherwise would be unable to learn to play.

(c) Competition in dramatics between classes in schools has been tried with complete success. Those interests offer lines of extra-school activities of great recreational, as well as social and educational value. The right leadership of the dramatic interests would do much to aid various subjects for the school curriculum, and safeguard the emotional experiences of children and youth, so endangered under existing conditions in many modern communities.

(d) The creative activities of boys and girls along lines of toy-making, carpentry, mechanics, boat building, wireless telegraphy, doll play, sewing, bead work, cooking, and many others, need but

little effort on the part of the school to be tremendously stimulated to great recreational and educational benefit of the boys and girls. In some cities, thousands of boys have competed in kite and aeroplane making and flying, and junior expositions have awakened great interest and discovered unsuspected talent.

These few suggestions have been made with the view of indicating how the school can easily and effectively guide play and recreation activities of children and youth; also to suggest that, in doing so, the school is performing a great service to adult recreation; for the best forms of adult recreation depend upon habits formed in earlier years. Unless an interest be nurtured and developed in the earlier years of life, there remains no adequate basis for active interest in later life. The problem of the recreation for adults is, to a large extent, involved in the problem of the play of children and youth. With this in mind we may suggest a few things that the school might do also.

## *II. For Adults*

(1) **THE SCHOOL PREMISES SHOULD PROVIDE ATTRACTIVE BREATHING PLACES FOR THE NEIGHBORHOOD.**—As has already been said, they are set in the midst of the people. So far as they go, the school yards might supply open spots for the near residents, as well as parks and squares. If the school system is developed with consideration of the play and recreational needs of the neighborhood, opportunities for recreation may be provided at less expense than equally satisfactory ones could be provided in any other way, duplication would be avoided, and, in general, such opportunities would be the most convenient for the public.

(2) **THE SCHOOL BUILDINGS SHOULD BE OPEN FOR EVENING USE.**—With some attention to play and recreational needs in school architecture, the school buildings might become admirably adapted to the recreational needs of adults. Even existing school buildings of the older types can lend themselves, in a degree, to recreational uses. The various recreational activities suggested for children and youth open the way for activities for adults. The social and civic activities of pupils might contribute directly to similar activities of adults. The music activities and contests might serve not only as means of entertainment, but might feed into the adult organizations year by year. Out of the musical activities might develop

the neighborhood chorals, orchestras, bands; out of the dramatic activities might develop the neighborhood theatre; and out of these neighborhood groups might be developed city orchestras, bands and theatres.

In brief, the school is the great socializing agency of the community. This social preëminence it holds by virtue of tradition, location, prestige, claims upon childhood, organization, leadership, social outlook and command of funds. "What you wish to appear in the nation, you must put into the schools." The social aspects of play and recreation, now so universally recognized, place upon the school a great responsibility but glorious opportunity. To falter, to delay, to side-step, to leave for other agencies what it can best do itself, would be for the school a moral failure.

Johnson, *What to do at Recess*, Ginn & Co.

## TRAINING CHILDREN TO A WISE USE OF THEIR LEISURE

By J. GEORGE BECHT, Sc.D.,

Executive Secretary of the Pennsylvania State Board of Education.

If every home were completely organized; if it could supply books, pictures, music and play activities suited to the different periods of a child's development, the proper employment of the leisure hours of children would present a less difficult problem than it now does. If parents knew how to interpret the characteristic activities of children and had a fuller sympathy with youth and a deeper insight into their hopes, desires and ambitions, their joys and sorrows; and if they could give friendly counsel and advice without nagging, there would be fewer domestic tragedies growing out of the misunderstandings between parents and children.

If teachers were wise to the significance of the playtime of life, and could fathom the meaning of childhood's longings and the tremendous forces that struggle for expression, especially during the adolescent period of life, there would be fewer occasions of disregard for the constituted authority of the school.

If the community could be made to realize in a vital way that as a community it has a responsibility in providing opportunities for the legitimate expression of the nervous energy of children, there would be little need for curfew laws; and disorderly conduct on the part of the youth in town and city would be an infrequent occurrence.

The playtime of the child is not only a preparation for subsequent life but it constitutes a real life experience. "We do not play because we are young," says Goos, "but we are young that we may play and thus receive the inheritance that comes to us through that channel." Plato said: "the plays of children have the mightiest influence on the maintenance of laws," and Schiller observed, "that man is man only when he plays." Froebel declared:

Play is the highest phase of child development and the most spiritual activity of man at this stage and at the same time typical of human life as a whole—of the inner hidden natural life in man and all things.

A child that plays thoroughly will be a thoroughly determined man, capable of sacrifice for the promotion of the welfare of himself and others. The spontaneous play of the child discloses the life of the man. Injure the child at this period and you may mar his life.

We are becoming more and more conscious of the fact in our modern civilization that life is a unity; that though there may be "seven ages" of man, these periods are not sharply defined, separate existences but all tend toward and merge into a complete and unified whole. Time was when school life, home life and community life were considered as separate activities. At that time life was ranged on simple lines. Then the school gave itself over to the problem of making children literate; the home furnished endless opportunities in useful vocational activities for the constructive and inventive genius of the children. Community life was isolated and individual.

But today the relationships of these once apparently separate institutions are better understood and their significance as bearing on the whole life problem is being closely noted. "Work-play-study" is the motto of the modern school, as "shorter hours of work and time for leisure" is increasingly the cry in the business and labor world. Modern invention and scientific discoveries have made of civilization a vast complex structure and to meet the needs of this, readjustment of educational procedure is demanded. It is probable that on the whole our philosophy of life and our philosophy of education have changed relatively little, but too frequently we have sacrificed the end and the purpose of life for the means. It is a false philosophy of life that would keep us ever getting ready to live without enjoying life in the process of getting ready. The laboring man, who spends twelve hours in hard and unremitting toil and at the close of the day is so fatigued that relief comes only from spending the other twelve in sleep, may make a good living for himself and family but it can scarcely be said that he has any appreciation for what Browning calls, "the wild joy of living." The great need in American life today is a proper balance of work and leisure; and that leisure so employed that it will minister to a continued growth of character.

It has been well said that the great waste of ill-spent leisure consists not solely in the vice that ensues; it lies more in the virtue that was not developed. That a young man should become de-

graded by spending his leisure in miscellaneous vices, thus ruining body and soul, is only half of the disaster. The other side of it is that the wasted hours might have been enjoyably spent in ways that would have led to a profitable vocation and made of him a valuable member of the community.

The agencies through which children may be trained to a wise use of their leisure are the home, the school, the church and the community.

#### THE HOME

"It matters little," said a great thinker, "what a people cares for second or third so long as it cares for its home first." In all the changes and moving currents of institutional life, none has held so permanent a place in our thought as the home. Yet notwithstanding this there has been a shifting of responsibility, due to social and industrial causes. Many of the activities in the home which offered opportunities for proper use of leisure time have passed over into other industrial and social agencies.

The glamour of the city street has cast its spell over the youth of our day to such an extent, that the home is in danger of losing its rank as first among our civilizing agencies.

Jane Addams, in her book *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, utters a severe indictment against modern civilization for its neglect of the youth who are exposed to all the allurements, and danger and evils of life in the city streets. These changes in the social order constitute a call to the realization of increased responsibility on the part of the parents to establish within the home direct agencies for the maintenance of social ideals.

Many children do not use the leisure hours in the home wisely because the home offers so few comforts. "Why" asks one, "do children go out on the streets at night"? and the answer too often must be, because the home is so unattractive. Thousands of children live in homes wholly unsuited to ordinary living purposes. These children have no places in the home to which they can invite their young friends. There is no provision made for employing leisure hours in legitimate pleasures. When one thinks of the crowded tenements, the unsightly and inhospitable looking rows of houses with their meager equipment; the bare floors and pictureless walls; with nothing to awaken or encourage the esthetic sense or

satisfy the ordinary wants of childhood, we are not surprised that children get into the habit of being constantly upon the street.

A home library may be made one of the most attractive means for properly and purposefully employing some of the child's leisure hours. A small bookcase and a few well selected books within range of the child's experiences can be made the starting point. It is important in this connection to have the ownership of books and library equipment, however meager it may be, vested in the child. Books should have the name of the child inscribed, or better still, a book plate, the design of which reflects his choice and taste, should be pasted in the book. There is a pride in the permanency of possession which such a plan gives which may be most appropriately stimulated. To bring growing boys and girls into vital relation with good books and reading matter is a fine art and one to which parents and teachers may lend themselves with the assurance that such training adds materially to the sum total of human life and human happiness.

The public library, as a means of giving employment and profit in leisure hours to children as well as adults, is universally discussed, but unfortunately its worth and influence is not universally appreciated. One-half of the children leave school at the age of 12. If their education is not to stop there, the library is the chief instrumentality for its continuance; and for its proper use, the school and the home need to give training. The library habit will be a means of development all through life. It was Lowell who said that the foundation of his literary life was laid in his father's library.

Matthew Arnold said on one of his lecture tours in this country, that nothing he saw in America impressed him so much as the sight of a ragged and almost shoeless little boy sitting in the reading room of our public libraries studying his book with all the sangfroid of a member of a West End London Club.

The library habit or the reading habit is not only a pleasant way of using leisure, but properly guided is most uplifting.

#### THE SCHOOL

Increasingly the school is becoming conscious of the responsibility placed upon it in this respect. The significant breaks in the formal school program, as indicated in the administration of many school systems, are hopeful signs. From the kindergarten to the

university, play is coming to be recognized as one of the most important socializing factors. But it is not alone on the physical side that the school is furnishing opportunities for the right use of leisure. It is organizing within the system a group of collateral activities that call into play musical, literary and other social, restful and recreative forces. The desire for amusement is a most natural one and youth needs only opportunity and direction in the employment of its creative genius. Musically inclined pupils should be organized into an orchestra; those having dramatic tendencies may engage in amateur theatricals; those having literary or forensic abilities should be encouraged to form debating clubs. Pupils mechanically disposed will be interested in reading such magazines as *Popular Mechanics* or the *Popular Science Monthly* and will take keen delight in reproducing in the school or home the mechanisms described. Science clubs for those who may be interested in botany, zoology or geology and other sciences should be organized. The one great supreme and commanding need to secure results is intelligent, broad-minded, leadership.

No phase of the educational problem has received more attention during recent years than that involving the physical activities of children. The multiplication of playgrounds and gymnasiums is evidence of the fact that this thought is getting a firm hold upon the urban as well as suburban communities. Public playgrounds are being provided and school buildings are being erected on plots sufficiently large to insure proper recreational facilities. Below the grammar school, the games are varied and play is spontaneously diversified. It is very gravely questioned, however, whether beyond the grammar school period plays and games are organized so as to train the masses of young people to engage their leisure hours in these recreational activities. High school athletics are narrowly and intensively organized. The game is a public, spectacular affair in which the team, a small group of especially trained persons, represents the mass of observers. The latter watch and applaud. That such occasional exhibitions afford opportunities for mass enthusiasm and the expression of a fine spirit cannot be denied. Some leisure can be profitably spent in this way. But to give one's self over wholly to watching the game or games and having no part in recreational activities, tends to an unwise use of hours that could be made to give profit as well as pleasure. There is

great danger that the high school and the college will professionalize athletics by highly specializing the activities. We have much to learn from the Germans in this respect. Instead of having a few different kinds of ball games, they have four score. These give a wide range of opportunity for almost every degree of ability. Our need in this direction is to awaken the interest of the individual so that he shall take part in these varying phases of play.

#### THE CHURCH

Unfortunately, the church up to the present time has had very little in the way of organization to provide for the leisure of either children or adults. The institutional church which came into existence some years ago has not realized the hopes of its founders. Though the idea was well conceived and the basis of its organization is fundamentally sound, it does not seem to have made much progress. This is due most probably to the fact that in populous centers there are so many counter attractions, such as moving picture shows, theatres, dance halls and public parks, that the church has not been able to offer a social program sufficiently strong to counteract these influences and thus have a share in shaping the leisure life of the community. But the decadent condition of the rural church cannot be ascribed to the same reason, for here there is a lack of social and recreational opportunities. Rural church surveys indicate that "the trouble with the church in the past has been that it has been ministering to itself, seeking to run a gospel ark for its own members, without feeling that it owed any duty of service to the community as a whole." This attitude is largely responsible for the lifeless condition of so many of these churches. Recent studies show that those churches that are organizing the social life of the community are growing while those content to follow only the old lines of activity are rapidly losing ground. In a survey of 76 churches in one county of Indiana, it was found that among those that were organizing the social and recreational life, 65 per cent were found to be growing in membership while of those that were not organizing the social and recreational life, only 12 per cent were found to be growing. Of two hundred and fifty-six churches found in other parts of the state where no attention was paid to the recreational life, in only one was there found any evidence of growth. The lesson seems to be plainly written: The church that would

flourish must adjust itself to this new demand and provide opportunities to satisfy the instincts and longings for social companionship. Some notable instances are on record where this has been done. Curtis in his *Play and Recreation* describes what was done in an Illinois country community:

Twelve years ago a young pastor came fresh from the Seminary to a dying country church. He first organized a singing school, which brought the young people into the church one night a week to sing. It soon developed that there were several good voices and out of this singing grew a boys' quartet, several soloists and a good chorus for the church. After this, a gospel chorus was organized which met around at the houses of the members. A considerable part of each of these evenings was given to sociability and the program became very popular with the young people. Sociables were planned where light refreshments were served. These developed a spirit of good comradeship among the people. Out of the spirit grew a missionary circle for the girls, and an athletic club for the boys, an annual home coming and picnic and a series of extension lectures and entertainments. In the twelve years of his pastorate, a ten thousand dollar church had been completed and paid for, the pastor's salary had been raised 40 per cent and in the last five years more than six thousand dollars had been given to outside benevolences. Practically everyone in the country-side is a member of the church. Though located not far from three large cities, none of its young people have left the farms to seek city life. During the entire pastorate only one young person in the neighborhood is known to have gone wrong.

Under wise and proper leadership, it is not difficult to organize appropriate social activities for the leisure hours of the young people. In many places the boys' classes have been organized into boy scout patrols, hunting-with-camera-clubs, baseball and basketball clubs and nature study hikes. Girls' classes have taken up definite practical projects in connection with missionary work. In all these recreational activities the important consideration is a definite and well-defined program. The church and the Sunday school can ill afford to miss the opportunity to give serious consideration to the development of leadership among its members so that the force and energy of its young people may be directed to wise, useful, social ends.

#### THE COMMUNITY

"No Christian and civilized community can afford to show a happy-go-lucky lack of concern for the youth of today," declared Theodore Roosevelt recently, "for, if so, that community will have to pay a terrible penalty of financial and social degradation in the tomorrow."

The community playground, the social center, the properly supervised municipal dance hall, May-day fetes, and historical pageants are among the recently noted community movements tending toward a better appreciation of how to employ the leisure and activities of children as well as adults. The dramatic instinct which is such a marked characteristic of youth is being increasingly utilized in providing isolated communities with instructive as well as entertaining performances. It is not only in the cities and towns but in the distinctively rural communities that such activities may be carried on. Recently in an interior township of Pennsylvania the entire community manifested its interest in a May-day festival. In it were united features that were both social and educational. Thirty floats, some representing distinctive May-day allusions, others symbolizing historical, industrial and educational events, passed over the principal highways to a central meeting place where luncheon was served and a program of exercises, consisting of choruses by the children, folk dances, Boy Scout drills and an exhibition by the Camp Fire Girls was carried out.

During the past year there has been a revival of the old time "singing school" idea which has been adapted to new conditions. The activity is organized under the name of "community singing." Old and young are invited to take part. One night is devoted to old familiar songs, another to patriotic singing; still another to singing songs written by local talent. The history of the songs, the purpose for which they were written and incidental interesting facts relating to them are briefly described by the leader. But the main purpose is to have every one take part in the singing. Such an exercise has both a stimulating and a unifying effect.

Among the most pronounced changes in American life are those noted in connection with vocational and avocational experiences. As wealth accumulates and economic pressure grows less, leisure assumes a larger place in the social process. If leisure time is not wisely used it becomes a menace to society, breeding debauchery and crime. For the home, the church, the school and the community there lies in this direction an unparalleled opportunity to promote the happiness and general welfare of "all the children of all the people."

## CHILDREN, LIBRARIES AND THE LOVE OF READING

BY ANNIE CARROLL MOORE,

Supervisor of Work with Children, The New York Public Library.

"Does John really read this book?"

The children's librarian looked up, from the copy of *Masterman Ready* she was stamping, into the smiling face of John's grandmother who had stopped at the library on her way to market and now stood waiting with market basket on her arm for John's book and card. The grandmother replied:

Oh, dear yes, he reads it over and over. John says *Masterman Ready's* the nicest book ever was. He's peculiar is John—he doesn't like many things nor folks—they mostly don't understand him but he's got a nice heart. Another thing about John is that everything he takes an interest in seems real—just as if it had happened today or yesterday. I found him crying one day and at first couldn't get him to tell what was the matter. Bye and bye he said he was crying because he felt so awful bad about Abel's getting killed. They had had the story of Cain and Abel in the Sunday School lesson and I don't think most of the children did more than forget but to Johnnie it was just as if it had happened yesterday to one of his mates. You might not know it from the looks of him nor from anything he says, but if anybody's been good to John he never forgets it. He feels comfortable in this children's library for he says nobody bothers him. He isn't quick about reading but he's very persistent when he takes a fancy. He took a real fancy to *Masterman Ready* and so he keeps at it and reads it over and over until he gets all the sense.

I learned to read in a queer way myself. I never went to school and after I came to America—I was then twelve years old—I had to work pretty hard. When I grew to be a big girl I used to read aloud to some blind folks who lived in the block. Two of them were educated and told me how to pronounce the words. I used to get the books from the New York Free Circulating Library and I feel as if that library gave me an education. When I moved to Brooklyn to live the first question I asked was if there was a library and I felt so glad the children could enjoy right away a privilege that has meant so much to me and their mother. Free libraries and free baths are the greatest benefits of our time.

The children's librarian had wondered at the fascination of *Masterman Ready* for a little German boy of ten years unable to read with ease. She had vainly tried to interest him in something easier until he should have gained facility in reading. Always without success. John persistently chose *Masterman Ready* when-

ever it was to be found on the shelves. If *Masterman Ready* was not to be had he would leave his card, often for weeks at a time. On his return he would fall upon *Masterman Ready* and at the end of two weeks ask to have the book renewed. This had gone on for more than a year before his grandmother came:

It is nearly twenty years since this interview with John's grandmother took place in the children's room of the Pratt Institute Free Library but it loses none of its reality when applied to the work of the children's librarian of today for it sums up the whole philosophy of her training in the voluntary use of books with children: Freedom in the choice of good books; respect for the reader's individual taste; active recollection of one's own childhood.

#### RECENT DEVELOPMENT OF LIBRARY WORK WITH CHILDREN

Library work with children has been widely extended and developed in America during the past twenty years and just before the war it was passing rapidly to European countries as "a new idea in education" through photographic representations and through the writings of educators and journalists from Norway, Sweden, France, Russia, Germany, Holland, Italy, Spain, China and Japan. The late Herman Bang, the Danish author, who visited this country in 1912 said of children's libraries:

This library work for children is amazing. I was prepared for everything else I have seen in America but this surprises and delights me, I find it deeply interesting and full of possibilities for future generations. I should like to spend a long time in this beautiful room reading and watching the children.

Dr. Crothers in 1904 wrote:

What an interesting place to study the tastes of children, your library must be. I have been delighted to see the way in which my two little girls insist on the books they enjoy, resisting all attempts at substitution. Twelve year old Margery (to whom *Miss Muffet's Christmas Party* is dedicated) insists on romance while her sturdy matter of fact sister has been perfectly content since I introduced her to Rollo. She takes it with all the seriousness for which it was intended.

To put one's self in touch with the individual reader at home, in school, or in the library requires time and an active imagination but is vastly more profitable than to interpose one's own judgment in the selection of a book for a child. I believe it to be essential to the development of library work for children on a large scale. A genuine love of reading cannot be forced nor should we fail to recog-

nize that the mechanics of learning to read present grave difficulties to minds in which the love of "mental adventure" and appreciation of art forms may already exist in a high stage of development.

One of the most remarkable children I have ever known, a little Scotch boy, was seemingly incapable of learning to read at school although he had an unusual command of language, was familiar with the great characters of legend and history, and possessed of a rich fund of general information. Through his interest in pictures he finally mastered the mechanics of reading at the library, quite unconsciously, as is the experience of many a child. The first book he read was *The House that Jack Built* with the Caldecott illustrations. He announced triumphantly "Now I can read what is under the pictures in the history books." Pictures had more interest and meaning for him than words.

Boutet de Monvel's *Joan of Arc*, familiarly called "the book about the French girl," completely fascinated him. His delight at discovering for himself that learning to read gave him the ability to read the legends under the pictures in the histories, books of travel and books about animals left a vivid recollection—a recollection so strong as to have influenced my entire field of library work with young or foreign born children by an enlarged use of picture books. The books illustrated by Randolph Caldecott, Kate Greenaway, Boutet de Monvel, Leslie Brooke and other artists have been used as first steps in training in the appreciation of art, to stimulate language interest, and as an introduction to the life of other countries.

A solid page of printed words remained an appalling experience to Jimmy and he turned from it with weariness to the person who would "tell things." Sometime after the death of this little boy his younger sister listening to stories of Alfred the Great, whose Millenary was being observed in the children's room, remarked "King Alfred puts me in mind of Jimmy, the way he went about learning things off folks." Every teacher or librarian will recall children whose interest in reading it seemed impossible to rouse and other children whose reading is so far in advance of the grade requirements as to yield daily surprises—children who read so fast as to hold no impressions of what they have read.

## TESTING THE CHILD'S INTERESTS AND TASTES

More and more is the modern public library becoming the testing place for the reality of interests created in the school and the home. Less dependence is placed upon graded lists as parents, teachers and librarians come into closer human relationships and a better understanding of the needs, the resources, and their common aim—to foster the love of reading for its own sake. Whether the first persistent fancy for a book is for *Mother Goose*, with or without Caldecott's illustrations, for *Peter Rabbit* or a *Brownie Book*, the *Blue Fairy Book*, *Treasure Island* or *Masterman Ready* is of small consequence. The matter of supreme importance is that a spontaneous desire to read something be aroused and that the reader, whatever his age, and wherever he may live, be left free to enjoy to the full his first fine joy in the discovery of a book to which he feels related.

Only a few books make their own direct appeal to one generation of child readers after another—

The Bible	Rip Van Winkle
Aesop's Fables	Little Women
Mother Goose	St. Nicholas (bound volumes)
The Arabian Nights	The Children's Book; (a collection of the best and most famous stories and poems in the English language chosen by Horace E. Scudder.)
Robinson Crusoe	
Grimm's Fairy Tales	
Swiss Family Robinson	
The Blue Fairy Book	

Experience in the voluntary use of library books by children will vary greatly even in the same city. It is my own experience that, given the opportunity, children of the elementary schools read above and beyond the supposed average.

## CONSTRUCTIVE SUGGESTIONS

How then may we hope to create and sustain such interests in reading as will make the free use of books in libraries a more significant factor in the American life of today? Ten years of active supervision of the children's rooms in a system of branch libraries presenting great variety and range of experience, from the small rural community to the richly oriented life of the East Side, has led to these conclusions regarding the needs:

## (1) SELECTION AND SUPPLY OF BOOKS

There should be an inviting selection of books in good editions familiarly known and constantly re-read and discussed by those who are seeing the daily use of them by children and their parents. There should be generous duplication of the most desirable titles that a child may not have to wait months or years to read the book his friend is reading. Companionship in reading is an incalculable stimulus to the love of reading. There should be sufficient variety in the selection of titles to appeal to great diversity of taste in reading.

## (2) THE LIBRARY AND READING ROOM ENVIRONMENT

Books should be placed in a setting which invites reading. The furnishing and decoration of the room, the presence of growing plants and flowers help to give this atmosphere but it is primarily induced by the presence of books which do not circulate and which require some introduction if they are to be very generally read. The reading room collection should include *The Odyssey*, *The Iliad*, Shakespeare, *Don Quixote*, the Norse Sagas, the Greek Myths, the *Nibelungenlied*, the Arthurian Legénds, *Pilgrim's Progress*, Gulliver, Hans Andersen, Lewis Carroll, Howard Pyle, the English and Scottish ballads, Scott, Fenimore Cooper, Dickens, Stevenson, Kipling, Mark Twain, the collections of poetry and fairy tales chosen by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Smith; the folk tales of Joseph Jacobs and the fairy books of Andrew Lang.

Reference books for children should be chosen from the simplest and most up-to-date of the books for adults. Boys and girls may become familiar at an early age with the resources of dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases and books dealing with literary, scientific or mechanical subjects. Pictures to supplement books and a variety of illustrations in books should be used freely in reference work with children. Reading and reference collections numbering from 200 to 4,000 volumes have proved as suggestive to parents, teachers and librarians as to the children who are learning the resources of a library.

## (3) INTRODUCTION TO BOOKS

Skillful introduction to books may take the form of story telling, leading to the reading of folk and fairy tales, poetry, stories of adventure by land or sea, history stories or stories from the great national epics and dramas.

Books may be so arranged in libraries as to invite attention to a special subject by their own direct appeal. This method is growing in popularity and is aided by lists in which the books are allowed to speak for themselves by yielding direct quotations in relation to such subjects as heroism, vacation stories, songs and plays, Christmas, the Shakespearian festival.

Talks about books may be given by librarians, in schools or in libraries to visiting classes of school children. The use of a library by groups or classes may be made equally profitable to school or library but it will never take the place of voluntary use by the individual boy or girl who comes for his own enjoyment. Each form of contact with the library, the group or the individual, affects the other to the degree that spontaneous pleasure and interest in reading is aroused in librarians, children and teachers. Systematic group work with visiting classes from public schools in New York was established six years ago and the results are now to be clearly seen in the extent and variety of reference work in the children's room. "How much more alive to books the children are becoming every day," is the recent comment of a sister in a parochial school.

#### (4) COMMUNITY NEEDS

The library should be able to interpret and respond to the needs and interests of the community in which it is placed. No fixed limitation can be placed upon its service. Community movements such as the Shakesperian tercentenary present ideal opportunities for making books live again to large groups of children. It has been impossible in many public libraries this year to supply the demand for Shakespeare's plays and for books relating to the period in which he lived.

To such good purpose did the teachers and pupils of two school districts in New York put their minds to the life and times of Shakespeare that in the gymnasium of an East Side school there were re-created pictures of Warwickshire, a model of the Globe Theatre and another of Ann Hathaway's cottage and garden. This festival was unique in its beauty and spontaneity and in its effect upon the reading interests of 1,500 children who took part in the songs, dances, games and drama of the Elizabethan period.

A striking contrast is presented by the reference problem of the boy who had been assigned as a composition subject "Shakespeare's

children." After looking at many books and at the Shakespeare exhibit he said: "I have looked everywhere for Shakespeare's children. All I find is their names, Susanna, Judith and Hamnet. Two were twins. They were all baptized and I can't find out when they died. What good is that to write about?"

"These visits to the library are becoming as instructive to us teachers as to the children. We are learning a great deal," was the comment of one of the men teachers during this period of preparation. It is manifest as never before, that librarians and teachers must know and share the interests of the age in which they are doing this work. If reading is to mean anything—if creative work for children is to follow this war as it followed the revolutions in France, England and America, there must be an understanding of the potential reader and of what now exists for him in books.

There is need for informing and enlivening lectures and discussions of children's interests in books as well as of books for children if we are to see any wide practice of that skill in the introduction of books which is born of the play of fine minds upon the period of childhood and youth in literature and in real life. It is the reality of child life and experience and the reality of literature for its own sake that we seek to preserve from one generation to another. Not lists of books to be read but the fusion of the readers' reactions to the books they are reading will form the background for what the European educators have called "this new idea in education"—the children's library.

## THE RURAL SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTER

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In the use of the phrase *social capital* I make no reference to the usual acceptation of the term *capital*, except in a figurative sense. I do not refer to real estate, or to personal property or to cold cash, but rather to that in life which tends to make these tangible substances count for most in the daily lives of a people, namely, goodwill, fellowship, mutual sympathy and social intercourse among a group of individuals and families who make up a social unit, the rural community, whose logical center is the school. In community building as in business organization and expansion there must be an accumulation of capital before constructive work can be done. In building up a large business enterprise of modern proportions, there must first be an accumulation of capital from a large number of individuals. When the financial resources of these several individuals have been brought together under effective organization and skilful management, they take the form of a business corporation whose purpose is to produce an article of consumption—steel, copper, bread, clothing—or to provide personal conveniences—transportation, electricity, thoroughfares. The people benefit by having such products and conveniences available for their daily needs, while the capitalists benefit from the profits reserved to themselves as compensation for their services to society.

Now, we may easily pass from the business corporation over to the social corporation, the community, and find many points of similarity. The individual is helpless socially, if left entirely to himself. Even the association of the members of one's own family fails to satisfy that desire which every normal individual has of being with his fellows, of being a part of a larger group than the family. If he may come into contact with his neighbor, and they with other neighbors, there will be an accumulation of social capital, which may immediately satisfy his social needs and which may bear a social potentiality sufficient to the substantial improvement of living conditions in the whole community. The community

as a whole will benefit by the coöperation of all its parts, while the individual will find in his associations the advantages of the help, the sympathy, and the fellowship of his neighbors. First, then, there must be an accumulation of community social capital. Such accumulation may be effected by means of public entertainments, "sociables," picnics and a variety of other community gatherings. When the people of a given community have become acquainted with one another and have formed a habit of coming together upon occasions for entertainment, social intercourse and personal enjoyment, that is, when sufficient social capital has been accumulated, then by skilful leadership this social capital may easily be directed towards the general improvement of the community well-being.

That there is today almost a total lack of such social capital in rural districts throughout the country need not be retold in this article. Everybody who has made either careful study or close observations of country life conditions knows that to be true. Of rural social surveys there have perhaps been a plenty for the present. The important question now is, "How may these conditions be made better?"

#### A STORY OF ACHIEVEMENT

The story which follows is a concrete example of how a rural community of West Virginia in a single year actually developed social capital and then used this capital in the general improvement of its recreational, intellectual, moral and economic conditions. The community under discussion is a rural school district of 33 square miles, which embraces fifteen school communities, or neighborhoods. Three of these school communities are villages having graded schools; the other twelve are strictly rural, having one-teacher schools. The total population of the whole district is 2,180, of whom 771 are of school age, 6-21 years. The school organization consisted of a board of education (three members and a secretary), a district supervisor and twenty-three teachers.

This district supervisor, Mr. Lloyd T. Tustin of Hundred, West Virginia, was a new man in the district, coming from an adjoining county. He came into the district two weeks before the date set by the board of education for the opening of the schools.

He spent these two weeks going about the district, conferring with the local trustees, getting acquainted with the people, and having the schoolhouses put in order for the beginning of the school term. On the Saturday before the Monday on which the schools were to begin he held his first teachers' meeting. The board of education were present. At this first meeting definite plans were made for the year's work. Among the plans made the following are some that were carried through to successful conclusions:

(1) COMMUNITY SURVEY.—Each teacher made a survey of her school community, (a) to determine the physical and human resources of the people; (b) to learn the crop yield of the farms; and (c) to find what children in the community were not attending the schools and the reasons why they were not at school. These individual surveys were brought together and tabulated as a survey of the whole district. It was shown, for example, that of the 457 families 401 were taking at least one newspaper. One item of interest was the fact that there were in the district 331 dogs and 445 cats. These items were turned to very practical account as an argument with the people for a district high school, for it could be shown that if each dog and each cat cost their owners one cent a day for food, then the people were spending upon these animals an amount which, added to what the district may receive from the state as high school aid, would support a high school for their boys and girls. Of course, there was no disposition upon the part of anyone to have all the dogs and cats killed. The fact was merely used to emphasize the small cost of maintaining a local high school. While the high school has not yet been provided, there is very strong probability that it will be established soon.

(2) COMMUNITY CENTER MEETINGS.—This survey work proved to be of incalculable value to the teacher both in her regular school work and in her work for the community center. She was able to learn at first hand the home life of her pupils and she was able to become acquainted with their parents. Her work among the homes aroused the interest of the patrons of the school, for no teacher had ever shown so much interest in them before. When she announced that there would be a meeting at the schoolhouse for all the citizens, nearly all were interested and most of them came.

In order to show just what the nature of this first meeting

was, I submit below the program which was offered at one of the schools:

Song, led by the school choir.  
Devotion.  
Address, by the teacher.  
Reading, by a pupil.  
Current Events, by a pupil.  
Essay, by a pupil.  
Song, led by the school choir.  
Reading, by a pupil.  
Vocal Solo, by a local soloist.  
Reading, by a pupil.  
Debate.  
Cornet solo, by a citizen.  
Social half-hour.

Note that this first program was rendered almost wholly by the pupils. The teacher took occasion to speak of the work of the school and to show some of the possibilities of such meetings. The people enjoyed this program and expressed a desire for another meeting soon. The next program at this same schoolhouse was primarily for the older folks. It was entitled, "Ye Old Time School Days." These older citizens took great delight in relating the school experiences of their day, and the children were interested listeners. As time went on the weekly community center meeting was becoming more and more a feature of the regular community activities—in fact the only coöperative activity of the community. In due time, when some social capital had been developed, these meetings occasionally took the form of discussions of problems of a constructive nature. The people discussed such subjects as:

Should West Virginia have a more effective compulsory attendance law?  
Should there be a small tax on oil and gas for the support of schools and roads?  
Is it more profitable to grow hogs than to grow cattle in this community?  
Do boys and girls have better opportunities in the city than in the country?

But entertainment and discussion alone will not hold the interest of a community indefinitely. A definite purpose common to all must become the reason of this coming together. Fortunately, the community under discussion soon passed through the stages of entertainment and discussion to the stage of action. The people

themselves under the leadership of their supervisor and teachers began to look about them for something which they might do towards personal and community improvement. The social capital developed by means of the community center meetings was about to pay dividends.

(3) AGRICULTURAL FAIR AND SCHOOL EXHIBIT.—The first big meeting of the year was the agricultural fair and school exhibit, which brought together the people of the whole school district. The local community center meetings gave the supervisor and the teachers an opportunity to explain the purpose and the plans of this undertaking. In October, two months after the opening of the schools, this fair and exhibit was held at the most central schoolhouse in the district. The people came in large numbers. They brought baskets of food and had a community "spread." Prizes were awarded for the best products of the farm and the kitchen and for the best work exhibited by the schools. It was a great day to everyone present. It was the "pooling" of social capital developed in the local community centers, the first meeting of the people of the whole district ever held up to that time.

(4) COMMUNITY HISTORY.—At each school the pupils of the classes in United States and State History wrote up the history of their local community—who the first settlers were and when they came, when the first church was built and when any others were built, when and where the first schoolhouse was built and important changes made in the schools since then, who had first introduced improved live stock, the silo, farm machinery and other items of local historical interest. This work, of course, was under the direction of the teachers. When the histories had been prepared, the children of each school gave a program entitled, "History Evening," when the community history was read by the pupils who had written it. This proved to be a very popular program, since most of the citizens or their ancestors were personally mentioned. It had a marked effect upon the pride of the people in their home community. After these programs had been rendered, the several histories of the local communities were compiled into a history of the whole school district.

(5) SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.—It will be recalled that one object of the community survey was to determine what children were not attending the schools. While visiting the homes upon that occa-

sion the teachers were able to interest a good many absentees in going to school, or to persuade their parents to send them. Subsequent visits by the teachers at the homes brought most of the children into the schools. Then at the community center meetings, the subject of school attendance was discussed from time to time as a part of the programs. By means of this personal work of the teachers in the homes and of the discussions at the community meetings the percentage of average daily attendance was actually increased by 14 per cent over that of the preceding year. This increased attendance was accomplished without resort to the courts in a single case. The parents came to realize that the schools cost them the same whether their children attended them or not. They came also to see more clearly than ever before what the schools meant to the future welfare of their children and to the credit of themselves as fathers and mothers. Be it understood, also, that these parents were not "preached to" about sending their children to school. They were led into discussions of school attendance among themselves and they arrived at their own conclusions.

(6) EVENING CLASSES.—While making the community surveys the teachers quietly learned also the number of adult illiterates in their communities, though this information was obtained indirectly, so as not to be embarrassing to anyone. When their reports were brought together it was found that there were in all 45 adults in the whole school district, who could not read and write. At first it was thought best to organize night schools of the Kentucky "Moonlight" type for these persons alone. But in talking with the people at the community center meetings the supervisor and teachers came to the conclusion that what would best meet the educational needs of the whole adult population were evening classes for any who would attend them. Accordingly announcement was made at the community centers that at certain centers evening classes would be offered one night each week in addition to the regular community center meetings. These centers for evening classes were so selected that the teachers of near-by schools could assist the local teacher in this work—in effect a consolidation of schools for evening classes. The plan was eminently successful. The English subjects (reading, writing, spelling), arithmetic and agriculture constituted the course of study, not the usual textbook study, but just the things that the people were interested in learn-

ing. Nothing was said about illiteracy, for that would have been very embarrassing to those who had unfortunately failed to attend schools when they were boys and girls. Any who could not read and write joined the English classes and began at the very beginning. They had individual instruction and, therefore, learned very fast.

The evening classes were in themselves community center meetings: (a) because they brought together three or four neighborhoods at one of the centers, thus enlarging the circle of acquaintances; (b) because the demonstration work in the agricultural subjects attracted a great many who would have come out for no other reason; and (c) because the class exercises were either preceded or followed by a social half-hour, and in some cases followed by the serving of refreshments provided by the families represented, sometimes merely a basket of choice apples from one of the farms.

(7) LECTURE COURSE.—Closely related to the work of the evening classes was the lecture course. Now, when we speak of a "lecture course," we usually think of a series of lectures and entertainments given by persons brought into the community for that purpose and paid by the sale of tickets of admission. The lecture course in our rural district was a very different proposition. The lectures were free. They were given at the schoolhouses by the teachers of other schools in the district and by citizens of the community who had messages for the people. The subjects were of a very practical nature, dealing with improvements of agriculture, roads, schools, sanitation, morals. For information these lecturers drew upon the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Department of Agriculture, the State Agricultural College, the State Department of Schools, and the Public Health Council. Wherever possible, bulletins of information on these subjects were handed to the people to be taken home with them. These lectures were in reality community center meetings. The teachers themselves benefited greatly from them by the preparation they made for them.

(8) NATIONAL PATRIOTISM.—In view of the military strife abroad the time was ripe for a revival of national patriotism among the people. Accordingly, one of the programs at each of the community centers had national patriotism as its central theme. By a little guidance upon the part of the teachers this program led to the

placing of a flag upon every schoolhouse in the district. The people themselves purchased the flags, cut and hauled the flag poles, and observed "Flag Day" at the schoolhouses when the flags were raised. This demonstration led later to the placing of a small flag in each school room so that when "The Star Spangled Banner" was sung, every child leaped to his feet and saluted his country's flag—another factor of community improvement.

(9) SCHOOL LIBRARIES.—Another interesting outgrowth of the community center work in this district was the raising of \$282 for school libraries. This amount was raised at box suppers, pie socials, and public entertainments. Every school in the district now has a small collection of books approved by the State Superintendent of Schools. In addition to the books purchased, the teachers secured a large number of free bulletins upon subjects of agriculture, roads, schools, and other subjects of interest to the community. Here again the community center meetings were the means of providing these school libraries.

(10) SCHOOL ATHLETICS.—As stated in the first paragraph of this article there were in this school district three graded and twelve one-teacher schools. The three graded schools were made athletic centers, and to each were assigned four one-teacher schools. At each of these three centers a baseball team was organized, the players being chosen from among the pupils of the graded school, and its allied four one-teacher schools. These three athletic centers were then organized into a district school baseball league. One who did not get information at first hand by observation could scarcely conceive of the benefits derived from the baseball contests. The baseball games were almost the only source of outdoor amusement provided the people of the district. Rivalry among these three athletic centers was keen, but yet wholesome. The activities of the baseball league were a strong factor in the development of community social capital. There were a good many boys who had not been in school for two or three years, who enrolled now to play baseball. But in his account of these baseball contests, the supervisor says: "They (these older boys) stayed in school not only to the end of the baseball season; they got a taste of books and have been regular in attendance to the end of the year. Some who had not been in school for over two years won their Free School Diplomas this year and are planning to go to high school next year."

(11) GOOD ROADS.—In two or three places I have made mention of roads. The subject of improved roads was discussed at each of the community centers, that is, it was discussed by the people themselves. Waste of time and money occasioned by the bad condition of the roads of that district and the cost of improving them were figured out, even mathematically, by the citizens at these meetings. The crowning event of this notable year's work was the voting of bonds in the sum of \$250,000 to improve the roads—a very large dividend paid on the social capital developed during the year.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The reader may question the propriety of discussing such subjects as community surveys, school attendance, evening classes, and good roads in an article whose title is "The Rural School Community Center." I will admit that they are subjects not generally thought of in connection with community center work. Nevertheless, I am firmly convinced that the supervisor and teachers, whose achievements I have described, have struck bed-rock in community building. It is not what they did for the people that counts for most in what was achieved; it was what they led the people to do for themselves that was really important. Tell the people what they ought to do, and they will say in effect, "Mind your own business." But help them to discover for themselves what ought to be done and they will not be satisfied until it is done. First the people must get together. Social capital must be accumulated. Then community improvements may begin. The more the people do for themselves the larger will community social capital become, and the greater will be the dividends upon the social investment.

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## THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF MOTHERS AND PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

BY MRS. FREDERIC SCHOFF,

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Director Home Education Division, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations was the pioneer organization in studying and promoting every phase of child welfare, and it must ever stand at the very heart of all child welfare movements, because without mothers' coöperation no real betterment can be secured for children. It was the first national movement to widen and deepen the influence of fathers and mothers through the demand for educated parenthood and a wider vision of childhood's needs and parental duty. To help the home to do its best work, a practical plan for reaching every home must be found. The Parent-Teacher Association and the Mothers' Circle were selected as the mediums best adapted to reach all homes. Through the well organized school system a way was open to provide opportunities for home education for parents, and at the same time establish sympathetic, intelligent coöperation with the great body of teachers who were sharing with parents the education and guidance of the children.

Neither parents nor teachers were in touch with each other, and children suffered by lack of this mutual understanding—while the work of the teachers was greatly increased by lack of it. The Congress assumed the task of organizing Parent-Teacher Associations in every school. It also assumed the educational direction of these associations, in order to make them of real value to parents, to ensure their continuance, and to keep them true to their fundamental, far-reaching purpose. There had been parent associations of various kinds, but the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations originated the movement to make them universal, and to widen the scope of the educational system by making the schools serve a double purpose in education, by making it possible for parents to learn through them all that would enable them to be better fathers and mothers. The plan included the

wider use of school buildings, opening them for reading rooms and recreation centres wherever the need existed, and placing the responsibility for all this in the hands of those most concerned—the parents and teachers of the children in the schools.

#### A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY FOR PARENTS

The Congress, in its comprehensive plan for a nation-wide system of providing educational help for parents, assumed the functions of a National University for Parents with headquarters in Washington, but radiating its educational guidance to all who could be reached.

It was soon found necessary to establish state branches, through which extension work could be done, carrying the message to mothers just where they were. The interest and coöperation of state superintendents of schools were enlisted. Every officer gave her time and financed her work. For information a pamphlet on "How to Organize Parent-Teacher Associations with Suggestions for Programs" is published by the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, 910 Loan & Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C. The *Child Welfare Magazine*, Box 4022, West Philadelphia, gives each month a program and publishes reports of work of Parent-Teacher Associations all over the United States.

#### SCOPE OF PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

In the organization of Parent-Teacher Associations, the following reasons for their formation are given. Parent-Teacher Associations have three main reasons for existence:

First: To give fathers and mothers the opportunity to better educate themselves for intelligent home-making and child-nurture.

Second: To enable parents to learn what the schools are doing in order that the home may offer effective coöperation and that the schools may also coöperate with the home.

Third: To study community conditions affecting the welfare of the young with the purpose of arousing a sentiment of community responsibility.

The Parent-Teacher Association, needing for its full success the membership of parents and teachers of all political parties, all religious beliefs and of many different opinions as to the right and wrong of various movements, cannot afford to risk antagonisms needlessly. There are other well established agencies available

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for discussion and action along these lines. Let the Parent-Teacher Association confine itself to its own single high purpose, that of bettering conditions for "citizens in the making."

The world has no greater need than that of a wiser, better trained parenthood; this need is not yet recognized in school and college courses; the Parent-Teacher Association, therefore, serves as almost the only study class open to parents who wish to learn more of the duties of their calling. It raises the standard of home life through the education of parents; and through organization gives power for united and effective service.

### COÖPERATION OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

The Parent-Teacher Association has long passed its experimental stage; from leaders in education everywhere letters come asking the help of the Congress in organizing and providing educational programs. State superintendents of public instruction in the states of Delaware and Washington have made it a part of their work to request all principals to organize parent-teacher associations as members of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. Valuable pamphlets on this subject have been published by these superintendents. Hundreds of other state and county superintendents have given invaluable coöperation. Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, of Chicago, in a letter dated January, 1916, says:

Since the organization of the Congress of Mothers and of the Parent-Teacher Associations, I have known the leaders in Chicago and many of the workers in Illinois outside of Chicago. These auxiliary associations have endeavored to work in the spirit of the National Association. They have been invaluable in bringing the parents into close relations with the schools. They have had a marked influence on the administration of the schools. The barrier which had been quite generally erected between parents and teachers has been removed. They have helped revive the feeling that the public schools are the people's schools; are to be strengthened by the people.

### MOTHERS STUDY CONDITIONS OF CHILDREN

Ever since 1897 conditions of childhood outside the home have been a subject of exhaustive study by the Congress. When it began its work, children were in prisons and jails in every state, associated with confirmed criminals in all court procedure and before and after trial. No state except Michigan had assumed the responsibility of providing adequately for its dependent or orphan children.

No state had, from the mother's viewpoint, provided for the all around protection of the welfare of the children.

The first juvenile court and probation system was established in Chicago in 1899, the bill for it being drafted by Hon. Harvey B. Hurd. The Congress appreciated fully the advantages offered by this new system and worked unceasingly to promote its establishment in every state and in other lands, by conducting a systematic propaganda which was successful in many states.

Detention houses instead of jails were promoted. Recognizing that successful probation work is an educational function, and can only be successful when done with sympathetic insight into child life, the Congress has never ceased its efforts to place probation work under educational direction. Judge Lindsey<sup>1</sup> says: "There is no one factor or influence among the many good influences working for human betterment in this country that has done more to advance Juvenile Court and Probation work than the Mothers' Congress."

#### PROTECTION AGAINST CHILD LABOR

The Congress in 1902 inaugurated its child labor committee, and used its efforts to prevent the employment of little children in mines and factories, and to insure better factory inspection, and has ever since given its influence to promoting protection of children in industry. It has opposed all employment of children in occupations injurious to life, health or character, and the committee has given exhaustive study to the entire subject of work for children, earnestly working against abuses. An investigation is being made by the committee on the effects of child labor laws on child-life in different states, with a view to present and future welfare of children. Superintendents of schools and parents have called the attention of the committee to the necessity for such investigation.

#### MOTHERS' PENSIONS

In a study of children coming into juvenile courts, children who were truants and little children who were working, the children in orphanages and institutions, the Congress saw the necessity of

<sup>1</sup> Pamphlets on "Next Steps Forward in Juvenile Court and Probation Work"—Report of Ben B. Lindsey and Mrs. Frederic Schoff, Chairman and Vice-Chairman Juvenile Court and Probation Dept. National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Association. "Small Town and Rural Probation Work, Applicable to any County." Send to 910 Loan & Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

keeping the mother with her children, and in 1911 inaugurated a nation-wide movement to secure mothers' pensions to prevent the breaking up of the home when through poverty or death of the father, the mother is unable to keep it.

There is an aspect to this question which has wielded its influence in the evolution of a plan that would enable the mother to keep a home for her children. The struggle for existence has driven many children of tender years into the ranks of wage-earners before they were physically able to do the tasks required of them. Deprived thereby of any chance for the fundamental education which would enable them to fill places where there would be opportunity for advancement, these children have become a source of anxiety to all who are interested in the future of society. Some plan must be devised that would make it possible for the home to be sustained without the work of little children. Thus the nation-wide movement to secure mothers' pensions has a meaning and purpose the scope of which is not fully realized even by some of its warmest advocates.

A working mother with the best qualifications for being a good mother to her children, cannot exercise her powers when she is absent most of the daylight hours and must work far into the night to keep the roof over their heads. The state has decided that her service to the children is more important than her service as a wage-earner. It is safe to predict that truancy will decrease 50 per cent when the mother's pension becomes operative. Thirty-five states have adopted this preserver of the home, and a mother's care for the children, and in every state the Congress has been an active factor in securing this legislation, and in placing its administration outside of charity. Pennsylvania and New York methods are recommended.<sup>2</sup>

#### SAVING THE BABIES

By careful tests the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations has proved that 70 per cent of babies who die before they are a year old, can be saved by education of mothers

<sup>2</sup> "The Evolution of the Mother's Pension—Its Scope and Object." The pamphlet used successfully in legislative campaigns in a number of states can be supplied by application to National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, 910 Loan & Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

in infant hygiene. All the knowledge possessed by physicians and health boards counts for nothing unless the mothers, who have the actual care of the babies, can themselves possess the knowledge of the proper care and feeding of babies.

The National Congress of Mothers has for years conducted a constant campaign to awaken mothers and make them realize that more than instinct is required to have healthy babies, and to give them a chance to live. It has a method of learning of mothers of babies, and sends a bulletin on The Care of the Baby. It has sent appeals to all state and local Boards of Health to establish and maintain Departments of Child Hygiene, to see that every new mother is informed of all that will help her to give proper care to her baby and furnish protection to the milk supply; to have a Parents' Educational Bureau as a part of the equipment of every Board of Health, and to see that every mother is given the opportunity to visit it. In Portland, Oregon, the city coöperates with the local branch of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations in maintenance of a most successful Parents' Educational Bureau. Through the Child Hygiene Department, National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, vast amount of work for baby-saving has been done in many states.

#### STATE CHILD WELFARE COMMISSIONS

The Congress urged the appointment of an unsalaried state child welfare commission in every state to study every phase of child welfare, to consider existing conditions and to recommend needed improvements. Oregon has complied with the request. Its commission, appointed by Governor West, has done fine work—Chairman, Mrs. Robert H. Tate, 1811 E. Morrison St., Portland, Oregon. Every state requires the work of a child welfare commission, made up of broad-minded, unsalaried citizens, with the governor as *ex officio* member and with reports to the legislature that the members may have in mind the development of a system of state protection for the physical, mental and moral development of all its children. The Congress has done, and is doing, valuable work in many states in the extension of kindergartens as part of the school system in coöperation with the Kindergarten Division, United States Bureau of Education and National Kindergarten Association.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT COÖPERATION

Federal coöperation has been given the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations from the beginning, for the relation of its work to the youth of the nation was fully appreciated. Three international child welfare conferences have been held in Washington, the invitations for all nations to participate being sent by the Department of State. At the first of these the President of the United States delivered the main address. Federal coöperation with several divisions of the Department of Agriculture has been mutually advantageous during many years.

HOME EDUCATION DIVISION ESTABLISHED

The National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations most earnestly desired that the United States Bureau of Education should recognize that parents are educators, and in as great need of suggestion as teachers in schools, or as farmers in agriculture. When recognition was given by the Commissioner of Education to the fact that the larger part of children's education is conducted by parents—and that possibilities for preparation and study must be provided for them, an important step for child welfare was taken, and an unlimited field of service to parents was opened. The Home Education Division of the Bureau of Education was established in September, 1913, in coöperation with the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. The official announcement is here given:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR  
Bureau of Education  
Washington

The Home Education Division, which has just been established, will do whatever it can to help parents:

1. To further their own education by recommending to them interesting and valuable reading matter.
2. In regard to the care and home education of their children, with reference to: (a) physical care and health, sleep, food, etc.; (b) games and plays; (c) their early mental development; (d) the formation of moral habits.

We hope to interest the boys and girls who have left school and are still at home, and by directing their home reading and study we may be able to further their education.

It is our intention to issue bulletins and literature, practical in their character, which will be available to every home. The National Congress of Mothers and

Parent-Teacher Associations has agreed to assist the Bureau of Education in this work and can supply much literature not available through this office.

If the parents of your school district could be brought together at the school house or any other good place, perhaps once a month, to discuss their common problems, it would be mutually helpful. Will you let us know if you are willing to take up this matter in your school district and make a beginning by inviting some of the parents who are interested in such matters, and by enlisting, if possible, the coöperation of the teacher or teachers. The Bureau will send a brief form for simple organization of a Parents' Association, if you desire it. We expect to have a great deal of valuable matter for use of parents and teachers and for older boys and girls.

Rightly used, the home is the most important factor in the education of children. Through its Home Education Division, the Bureau of Education is trying to help the home to do its best work. Your coöperation will be invaluable. Kindly let me know if we may expect it.

Yours sincerely,

P. P. CLAXTON,  
*Commissioner.*

#### WORK OF THE HOME EDUCATION DIVISION

The extension of Parent-Teacher Associations, the coöperation of 40,000 women recommended by superintendents of schools, the distribution of educational bulletins to mothers, the preparation of reading courses for parents, for boys and girls who have left school, for men and women wishing to pursue home study, the provision of certificates for all who complete the courses, the replies to many questions from individual mothers, have brought much appreciation and have given a keen perception of the great need for the work of home education. Thirteen million children under school age in the United States are under the exclusive care of parents. Education in physical care means life to thousands. Education in the development of moral habits will prevent the blighting of many lives at their beginning. The greatest educational work is done in the first six years, and no after care can make up for neglect then. Eighteen million children of school age spend one tenth of their time in school, while nine tenths of their time is under parental direction and guidance, showing the relative educational responsibility of parents and teachers.

Twenty million boys and girls who have left school need encouragement in the continuance of education during the most critical years of youth, when insight and sympathy can lead upward, but when lack of it has driven many away from home influence.

The federal government now considers the education of children from infancy instead of from the age of six, and it considers their education for twenty-four hours a day, instead of five hours, and for twelve months of the year instead of ten months, as heretofore.

During 1915, 95,000 reading courses were sent out by request, and over 25,000 letters were sent. Thousands of bulletins on *The Care of the Baby* have been sent to mothers, while two editions of *1,000 Good Books for Children* have been published. This was prepared by the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations.

Two joint tours of representatives of the Bureau of Education, and officers of the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations, and National Kindergarten Association, have been arranged during 1915-16, covering the western and southern states in the promotion of home education.

#### FOREIGN INTEREST

Extension of national organizations similar to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations is assured. The Chinese government requested the Congress to send its president to China to aid the government in forming a National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. Japan through private sources has also asked this help. The Marchioness of Aberdeen has accepted the duty of organizer for Great Britain. Cuba has already organized. Argentina has taken steps toward national organization.

The ideals of a nation are created and inspired by the homes. To help all homes to give true high ideals of life, of citizenship and of duty to God and man is to lay sure and strong the foundations for a great nation. The work of the Congress is civic work in its highest sense, and it welcomes the coöperation and membership of all who would give a happy childhood to every child.

## AN URBAN HOME AND SCHOOL LEAGUE

BY WALTER L. PHILIPS, A.M.,

Supervising Principal of Public Schools, Lansdowne, Pennsylvania.

The home and school league is an organization of those persons interested in the education of the children, and in a larger sense of the community. Although their history is brief, they have already become a mighty force in bringing about the right kind of progress in a community. They supply the means whereby the community may express itself concerning its life and activities and they are a powerful coöperating force in making effective ideas that stand for progress. The demands for a practical education have caused remarkable changes in school curricula, especially those of the secondary and higher schools. The home and school league aids parents, teachers, and school officials in keeping informed of the changes occurring. The politician, the grafted, and the unfit are no longer tolerated in modern school circles. The home and school league has become an effective agent in the elimination of such persons from control. In the districts in which these associations are frowned upon or prohibited, a free expression of public opinion is unwelcome. When managed aright they coöperate with the legally chosen school officials when school affairs are managed with care and discretion.

### ADVERTISING AND CREATING INTEREST

As an incentive to the formation of a home and school league interest in the schools must be created. The school must be kept before the people. Its needs, aims and policy must be advertised in a legitimate manner in order to secure the coöperation a home and school league can give. Exhibitions of school work, musicales, art displays and contests never fail to arouse interest. The interest of the community having been secured, the desire for a home and school league should originate with the school administration who, it is presumed, welcomes the coöperation of the parents. When parents and friends realize that the school is merely a factor coöperating with the home, there is little or no difficulty in forming

an organization for mutual support. Interest in educational matters should be interpreted by the governing committee of the league, and this can rightly form a basis for the work of the organization.

#### NUMBER AND CHARACTER OF MEETINGS

The number of meetings for the school year depends upon the needs of the community. Two meetings before December 25 and three after that date seem to meet the needs of the league of this district. Regular meetings are not planned for the mere entertainment of members. As indicated in the foregoing statements meetings are planned for the discussion of some community problem, for the presentation to teachers and parents of some problem which will better help them in the training of the children of the district. It is a form of university extension brought into the school house. Questions bearing upon the moral training of children; on activities for the extra-school hours; the needs of the school district, etc., are discussed. A brief list of subjects follows: The Problem of Home Preparation of School Work; The Moral Training of Children; The Self Realization of Pupils and Parents; The Need of a Playground; Better School Facilities; Vocational Guidance; Some Higher Thoughts for Teachers and Parents; The Reading Matter of Children; The Health of the Child; Eye Strain; The Meaning of a Flower (Parenthood). Among the most profitable meetings are those in which the discussion of problems is carried on by the teachers and parents themselves. There is an exchange of ideas, a presentation of the two points of view in the education of the child, and a mutual understanding of the best methods to adopt in this training.

It is well occasionally to invite those not connected with the schools to address meetings of parents and teachers, giving them the advantage of their more complete study and experience, along their special lines of work. The breadth of the educational processes can often be made more evident by such formal addresses. Local problems, however, can usually be solved best by the people most directly affected, provided that there are men and women with sufficient wisdom to direct the discussion toward the right end. The purely entertainment features should not be omitted entirely. These, however, are of secondary importance and should not divert the time and interest from consideration of the more vital problems

to be brought before parents and teachers. In this district, one meeting a year is given to the inspection of children's work. Specimens of the work of all grade school children and almost all high school students are put into convenient places so that parents may inspect the work and compare that of their own children with the work of others.

Conferences of fathers and of mothers are frequently held an hour previous to the general meetings. Questions concerning the different sexes are discussed freely. Sentiment is created relative to what is best for boys and for girls in education. One result of these discussions is the further development of the physical education department of the public schools to the extent of procuring a well trained woman of much experience for physical training work for girls and a well trained man with successful experience for physical training work for boys.

#### COMMUNITY SPIRIT DEVELOPED

The social features of the meetings are of almost equal importance with the educational features. A community spirit is developed. Interest in the greatest institution of any district, the school, is fostered. Civic pride and community betterment are encouraged. Destructive criticism is unpopular. Constructive criticism enables a community to obliterate the mistakes of the past and to create that which endures. Sectarianism in religion finds no chance for expression in a well administered home and school league. There is no place for political discussions. The home and school association meetings should not be used as an occasion on which to develop selfish interests of any kind whatever. There is no organization in a district that is more democratic than a home and school league. There is no place for caste. Parents have a common interest, the education of their children. They are searching for the best methods and what is best for one child is likewise best, generally, for others. The social hour, with light refreshments after the program of the evening, offers an opportunity for the people of a community to become acquainted with each other. Discussions among men and women of the community develop powers of leadership not generally known to exist. Let me emphasize the importance of wise direction and administration of a home and school league to bring about these results.

**THE PROFESSIONAL WORK OF THE SCHOOLS**

The home and school league should not attempt to do the professional work of the teachers or superintendent of the school. It should not assume nor usurp the authority and function of the school board which is elected to perform certain administrative functions and which is responsible for the financial affairs of the school district. It is, however, possible for it to participate in many educational activities which supplement the regular work of teachers and school boards and thus enrich the opportunities offered to the children and older persons of the community.

This school district, a suburban borough of approximately five thousand people, has profited greatly by the initiative, the support and the participation in school activities given by the home and school league. I venture to name some of the interests of the league of this borough which have contributed towards the development of an educational ideal and to the material equipment of the school plant.

- (1) Procuring a public playground,
- (2) Procuring a new school building,
- (3) Decorations for the school building,
- (4) A club house for the playground,
- (5) Responsibility for supervision of evening work in the school building.

The home and school league cannot be credited with having been wholly responsible for the success of the interests just named. In many instances it started the movement and helped with it until its consummation. In other cases it helped with the movement after the starting of it by an individual or another community interest.

**PROCURING A PUBLIC PLAYGROUND**

A committee of the league was appointed to look into the matter of procuring available land for a public recreation field. Most of the apparently desirable land had been preempted and partly built upon. A tract of three and one-half acres, well located but ungraded and with wild growths upon it was recommended. The purchase price was approximately six thousand dollars. The home and school league was young and not especially influential at the time. It recommended the formation of a Playground Association, an organization in itself, to work out a plan for securing

possession of the land. Popular subscriptions were solicited amounting to four thousand dollars; the school board was asked to accept the four thousand dollars, to pay the balance on the land, and to assume the administration and supervision of it. Knowing that it had the support of the Home and School League representing a majority of the parents and taxpayers, the school board proceeded with the undertaking. Now one of the assets of the borough is a well-graded recreation field with football and baseball fields, tennis courts, swings, etc. A club house has been procured and recently all of the non-sectarian organizations of the district joined in a successful effort in the form of a country fair, raising eleven hundred dollars towards equipping the club house with shower baths, lockers, toilets, rest rooms, etc. The community interest in the effort to procure and equip a club house was remarkable inasmuch as all organizations including the home and school league joined unselfishly in a community project. The success of the effort of the people led an influential citizen to add to the playground ten more building lots at an expense of approximately five thousand dollars.

#### PROCURING A NEW SCHOOL BUILDING

Membership in the home and school league increased from an original thirty-five to over six hundred in five years. The auditorium of the old school building would not accommodate the growing organization. The extension of school interests encouraged by the home and school league was prevented on account of lack of space and facilities. A school loan was proposed. This meant increased taxes for maintenance and liquidation of debt. The school board requested that the home and school league discuss the problem and furnish a means whereby the citizens might give expression to their feelings relative to the matter. Inasmuch as the borough council had just authorized a loan of seventy-five thousand dollars for street improvement there was considerable doubt about the success of another loan, of sixty thousand dollars for school uses. Discussion of the subject left no doubt in the minds of the school authorities of the interest in the school loan. The voters authorized the loan and in fourteen months a new high school building, with auditorium seating one thousand, a gymnasium ninety by forty-five by fifteen feet and sufficient class rooms was ready for school and community uses. By means of sliding doors and movable partitions

the auditorium can be divided into six large class rooms. Movable and revolving chairs permit of adjustments to suit various uses for which the large room is adapted.

#### SCHOOLROOM DECORATION

The home and school league took up the matter of schoolroom decoration. A Shakespeare evening was proposed. Local talent, together with some outside assistance, was available to give readings and interpretations of Shakespearian dramas. Members of the league sold the tickets and attended in large numbers. Over two hundred dollars were thereby contributed to the school decoration fund. The league also joined with the school children in paying off the first hundred dollars of indebtedness upon the club house.

#### SUPERVISION OF EVENING CLASSES

The home and school league offered its services to the school board in conducting evening interests in the new school building. After the board had a complete outline of the plans of the league it accepted the offer of the league, allowing it to proceed with the execution of its plans for the use of the school building. Three committees were appointed, one for evening classes, one for social functions, and one for gymnasium activities. Classes were organized for the study of stenography, typewriting and Spanish. A gymnasium class for women was established. Each member of these classes was expected to share the expense of the tuition and janitor service only, the school board being responsible for light, heat and other resources of the school plant. In addition to the classes named, a class for boys was organized for Friday evenings. The school board paid the instructor and janitor and the home and school league supervised the class. The numerous social functions of the people of the district made it inadvisable for the committee on social affairs to arrange for many social functions although it was willing and ready to do all that it had planned.

#### INFLUENCE LOCALLY

There is no standard by which the influence of the home and school league itself can be measured. One can infer from the foregoing statements that the influence is great and good. In addition to that which has been described the influence upon the actual

administration, discipline and attitude towards the school has been marked. Teachers frequently refer to conferences they have had with parents at the home and school meetings. Pupils understand that parents and teachers generally are in accord in matters of study, discipline, home study, health, care of property and respect for authority. A spirit of coöperation has been developed. Teachers realize that the parents' point of view is to be considered and respected. Home conditions of study and work are better understood. In like manner the parent is made to realize that the teacher has rights and privileges, that she is a professional person worthy of respect, with authority, and with unselfish motives generally. In some cases in which teachers have failed to measure up to reasonable expectations of parents, when a dictatorial, unprofessional and unsympathetic attitude has been assumed, the teacher is made to realize that a different attitude must be shown and that none but teachers who are willing to act *in loco parentis* will be retained in the teaching corps.

The influence of the home and school league upon the community in general is quite as marked as that upon the school in particular. As indicated above, it has been influential in developing a community spirit; it has added to the material resources of the community; it has aided greatly in removing the schools from political domination; it has furnished a forum for the discussion of problems for the educational and moral betterment of the people; it has fostered and actually performed functions not the duty of any legally constituted authorities to perform; it has unselfishly gone about its work of doing good for children and their parents.

It is well known that school boards, town councils and other legally constituted governing bodies can perform their duties best where they are supported by those governed. The home and school league, when in the right relations with the school board is an interpreter of community ideas relative to school matters. It can be made an instrument of tremendous advantage to a school board that really desires to give the people what they want educationally. It shows the greatest lack of wisdom on the part of either organization to antagonize the other. The writer being secretary of the board of school directors and an officer in the home and school association is in a position to judge of the relations existing between the two bodies of this district. The perfect harmony existing, the

mutual support given, and the respect each body has for the opinions of the other, are factors contributing greatly towards the normal school conditions of the district.

#### WIDER INFLUENCES

The influence of a home and school association is not necessarily confined to the home district. Associations have joined for mutual help and coöperation. They are instrumental in the formation of associations in other school districts. They have the missionary spirit of helpfulness and uplift. Delaware County, Pennsylvania, early had a league of home and school associations. Two meetings a year are held at different places in the county. Representatives of the various local associations go to the county meetings and give and receive ideas for betterment. The county league of associations has a committee whose duty it is to go to places where there are no associations and encourage the formation of them. The spheres of influence extend into other counties and other states. No educational movement of recent years has done more towards educating the parents and teachers to the needs of the community than the home and school associations. Their spirit is coöperation, not dictation. Their criticism is constructive, not destructive. Their aim is the betterment of school conditions. They have in mind the welfare of the children and their parents. They are building on broad foundations and are building for the future.

## THE RURAL SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT LEAGUE

BY PAYSON SMITH, LL.D.,

State Superintendent of Schools, Maine.

The system under which the old time schools of New England were managed was both a recognition of the value of local interest in the local school and an attempt to give that interest efficiency of action by the imposition of local responsibilities and the granting of local powers. All matters relating to the establishment and conduct of the schools were under the direct control of the people of that neighborhood in which the school was located. Generally, the local preference for the employment of a particular teacher was a most important factor. These conditions, naturally, brought about a strong local interest in schools, the intensity of which could be measured easily by the extent to which the functions and powers of the citizens were exercised.

Contact with the world outside of the community was limited. The modern means of transportation and communication had not brought the rural and urban communities into close touch. The chief items of interest were those having to do with local affairs and local institutions. Interest in the school, its conduct and condition was a natural sequence. The school reflected the spirit of the community and it was improved or allowed to remain unimproved as its patrons desired.

The teacher of the school of fifty years ago was a prominent factor in the local social life. She was expected to visit the families having children in school and she took an active part in all community interests. Although parents did little "visiting schools," that lack of contact was more than made up when the conditions were such that the teacher "boarded round." Under this long abandoned plan the teacher took much of the school to the home and took from the home much that would aid in binding the two into close relationship. The older boys and girls had their responsibilities to the school additional to the preparation and recitation of lessons. The floors were swept, the fires built, the grounds kept clean, all by the pupils themselves.

The school of today differs widely from the old time school in the scope and character of the work which it had to do. Conditions have changed, customs are different, the horizon has been broadened and with these changes the relation of the rural school to the community which it serves has not remained the same. Public sentiment demanded a change in the methods of conducting schools and required that the town and the state take over responsibilities formerly held by the district or neighborhood. Wisely were these changes brought about but with them were lost the things that made so easily possible a live local interest in the schools.

#### THE NEED FOR COÖPERATION

But there are vital and pressing needs of the schools of today which cannot be met without the systematic, coöperative action of parents, teachers and pupils. Civic duty requires that every man and woman whose children are in schools, or who desires the advance of society, shall make active efforts to improve the schools. The public school is one of the most important of civic institutions and it is one of the most important of civic duties to see that it is made most efficient for the civic ends for which it is established. The teacher in the school is encouraged to do her best work when she is conscious of a vigorous interest on the part of the community which she serves. The consciousness of such an interest is not easily attained unless she can come in close personal contact with the parents and citizens of the community.

To secure a personal contact with the parents a plan of home visitation must be adopted by the teacher or some influence must be brought to bear which will result in general parental visitation of the schools. Unless there is some organization which creates a natural bond between the home and the school the visit to the home by the teacher may be interpreted wholly as the payment of a social obligation and the visit to the school by the parent entirely as a small matter of duty to be undertaken occasionally and when convenient. There is needed then some well organized agency created for the purpose of arousing and maintaining a local interest in the local school, to unify it into an effective force for good. Such an agency must have such intimate relation to and connection with the local school that the school's needs and work shall be the source and center of all the agency's action. It should have such

inter-relations with kindred agencies connected with other schools of the town, that their combined action may affect the common needs of all. Also, it should have some close connection with one great central agency whose sphere of action should be state-wide and whose purpose should be to crystallize all the forces of local interest into one great central force acting upon all local agencies and reacted upon by all of them.

#### THE SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT LEAGUE OF MAINE

In an attempt to create such an agency the School Improvement League was formed in Maine in the year 1898. The membership of the School Improvement League includes teachers, pupils, parents, school officers and citizens. The local league, with a membership made up of those having interests in a particular school, is affiliated with the local leagues of the town through the organization of a town league, the membership of which is composed of the officers of local leagues. From the state headquarters is furnished material helpful in forming leagues, including handbooks, forms for constitutions, certificates of membership, membership badges or buttons, charters, etc. The certificates of membership are signed by the state superintendent of public schools, the superintendent of schools of the town in which the league is located and the teacher in charge of the school. The membership badges are simple, inexpensive and dignified in form. These features are particularly attractive to most school children whose enthusiasm cannot be lost on the parents.

#### A TYPICAL CONSTITUTION

Constitution of the.....School Improvement League.

##### ARTICLE 1.

This League shall be a branch of the School Improvement League of Maine.  
It shall be known as the.....League.

##### ARTICLE 2. OBJECT

The object of this organization shall be to unite the pupils, teachers and friends of the school in an effort to help to improve it and to make it of the largest possible service to all the people of the community.

##### ARTICLE 3. MEMBERS

Membership in this League shall be open to pupils, teachers and friends of the school who are willing to subscribe to the objects named in Article two.

##### ARTICLE 4. OFFICERS

SEC. 1. The officers of this League shall consist of a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, a Treasurer and an Executive Committee of three, the

chairman of which shall be the President. These officers shall be elected by ballot at the first meeting of each term.

SEC. 2. The duties of these officers shall be those usually required of such officers. It shall also be the duty of the Secretary to return to the Secretary of the County League full reports of the doings of this League. If there is no County League such report shall be returned to the Secretary of the State League.

#### ARTICLE 5. FINANCE

SEC. 1. The income of the League shall be derived from such entertainments as may be given by the League and from the voluntary contribution of members and friends of the school. There shall be no required assessments.

SEC. 2. An account of the receipts and expenditures shall be rendered by the Treasurer at the close of each term.

#### ARTICLE 6. MEETINGS

SEC. 1. The regular meetings of this League shall be held.....

SEC. 2. Special meetings may be called by the President.

#### ARTICLE 7. AMENDMENTS

Alterations or amendments to this constitution may be made by a two-thirds vote of the members present at a regular meeting, providing that notice of such alteration or amendment has been given at a previous regular meeting.

In the main the efforts of the School Improvement League are directed to make the local school the center of local community interest, to improve physical conditions and to help to provide school libraries, pictures and supplementary equipment. With the accomplishment of the first aim, the improvement of physical conditions and the addition of equipment can usually be secured. The extent of local interest may be measured somewhat by the physical improvements made. Upon the teacher herself rests the greatest responsibility for the success or failure of a league. The success of a league means much to her, its failure indicates her failure, her efforts are for the league.

#### DEFINITE ACCOMPLISHMENTS

A review of changes made in school conditions indicates that much has been accomplished through the activity of the School Improvement League. School grounds have been made objects of pride. Old school buildings have been renovated and brought into keeping with their improved surroundings or have yielded place to new ones of more modern and pleasing architecture. Schoolrooms have been beautified and made attractive through the purchase of pictures and casts or through the organized plan of systematic cleaning and decoration. Libraries have been purchased, a few volumes at a time. Apparatus has been secured which has added much to the comfort and convenience of the school. Changes in methods of heating and ventilation have been brought

about. The organization of the noon hour lunch and of organized play under the direction of the teacher—these and many other things owe their institution in numberless schools to the efforts of the School Improvement League.

Public meetings of the leagues in the form of entertainments and exhibitions given to raise funds for carrying forward the various lines of work set for them to do have made a strong appeal to the interest and encouragement of parents and friends of the children of the league. In matters in which the action of the school authorities have been involved parental and local influences have been crystallized in the interest of the school. Broader, more intelligent and more liberal policies of education and of educational needs and a wider view and greater respect for the rights of others have resulted from the closer acquaintances with the local school and its needs.

The leagues have had a potent influence on teachers. To successfully direct the league's operations has required thought, study and reading along lines new to many and consequently a large intellectual and professional growth has been encouraged. The many new ways in which teachers have been brought into close relations with the parents of their pupils have served to give them increased importance in public estimation and have served to bring them and their work under more intelligent and kindly consideration. They have been enabled to realize the accession of parental confidence and have increased their powers by securing a stronger hold upon the respect, confidence and good will of those served by the school. From all of these things has resulted an increased power of control within and without the school.

But the ultimate purpose of all agencies acting upon schools is the largest good to the children in them. For this reason they are given prominence in the membership and work of the league. For this reason also much of the work of the league is made to hold close relation to the regular work of the school and many of the means employed in helping the league to secure needed funds are distinctly educational in character. The improvements secured through the work of the league are improvements of the type that directly affect the school environment and exert a direct educational force upon the children. In the preparation for regular and special league exercises the children secure a knowledge of history,

biography and literature which the school through its routine program would find it difficult to give. In the business meetings of the league the children acquire a knowledge of and practice in methods of procedure common in deliberative bodies that may prove useful to them in after life. As they take part in the discussions which necessarily arise in determining the work to be done by the league they acquire the power to think and express thought in a consecutive and orderly way and they gain the power of self-command. By attending public meetings in which they take so active a part they learn to respect the requirement that such meetings demand courteous and orderly behavior and respect for the opinions of others. If the league had no other duties to perform than this direct and positive educational function, they would do for the children a very important and much needed work.

To the communities which they serve the leagues have been an ever increasing power for good. More than any other agency the School Improvement League of Maine has successfully made the school a real community center in many localities. Through the improvement of the school building and its surroundings has resulted the improvement of the farm building and its surroundings. To the wholesome influence of the league may be traced an improved bit of road, a better tilled field, a more active interest in canning farm products, and many other things. The inspiration and help of the league cannot be contained within the four walls of the schoolroom.

The entire plan is simple and practical. Its results are direct and desirable. It does not demand an involved piece of machinery for its operation. Started in a small way it is capable of expansion to an agency strong in its power for school improvement.

## SCHOOL CREDIT FOR HOME WORK

BY L. R. ALDERMAN, B.A.,

Superintendent of Schools, Portland, Oregon.

When I was a young high school principal in McMinnville, Oregon, I found in my class a girl whom I shall call Mary. She was a healthy, happy-go-lucky, careless girl, who did very little work at school and still less at home. She spent her after-school hours on the streets, and in going to the post office and to see the train come in. I wondered what kind of a mother Mary had and what kind of a home she had. I wished that I might talk with Mary's mother, but as I had no solution for the Mary problem I did not go to see her. One day as I was going home, the teacher with whom I was walking said to me, "There is the mother of your Mary." I turned back and crossed the street that I might see Mary's mother. A glimpse at her told me the whole story. She looked weary, overworked, discouraged. I did not speak to her, for I had nothing to say.

After she had passed by I found myself growing indignant, and then thoughtful; then I became excited, for I felt that I was in the presence of a real problem that had not been solved. Maybe I could find the solution! I knew that the working out of it was worth while. Here was Mary, missing her life's opportunity by her hard-hearted indifference to her mother; and here was I, supposed to be helping Mary, but limited by tradition to helping her with such things as quadric equations, the Punic wars, and the nebular hypothesis! What was I to do?

### ASSIGNMENT OF REAL WORK

By the next morning I had worked out a plan. Before we took up our books I asked the girls in the algebra class, "How many of you helped with the housework this morning before coming to school?" Some hands were raised, but not Mary's. "How many of you helped make any of the clothes you are wearing?" Hands again, but not Mary's. "How many of you know how to make bread?" Some hands, but still not Mary's. "Now," I said, "I shall assign as usual ten problems for you to report upon at this hour tomorrow,

but five of them are to be from the algebra book and five outside of the book. The five outside of the book, for the girls, are to be:

1. Helping get supper.
2. Helping with the kitchen work after supper.
3. Preparing breakfast.
4. Helping with the kitchen work after breakfast.
5. Putting a bedroom into order.

I thought if the boys remained at home they might at least be exposed to their lessons, so I told the boys that they would be credited with three for remaining at home all the evening, and with two more for bringing in wood and doing their regular chores.

At this announcement the class showed the enthusiasm that always comes with anything new in school, but they also showed signs of an awakening conviction that the things asked of them were really worth while. The look on their faces, from that day forward, gave me the feeling that I had struck something vital. It was as if I were handling wires that had connection with a great dynamo.

The next day I asked those who had done the problems in home helping to raise their hands. Every hand went up, amid much enthusiasm. Then I asked for those who had done the algebra problems, and again all raised their hands. As I looked my approval all hands came down, that is, all hands but Mary's. "What is the matter with your hand, Mary?" I asked. "I worked five problems in advance," she said with sparkling eyes. "I worked all that you gave me, and five more from the book."

#### CLASSROOM CREDITS FOR HOME WORK

Since that day I have been a firm believer in giving children credit at school for work done at home. We did not work home problems every day that year, but at various times the children were assigned lessons like the one mentioned, and scarcely a day passed that we did not talk over home tasks, and listen to the boys and girls as they told what each had achieved. The idea that washing dishes and caring for chickens was of equal importance with algebra and general history, and that credit and honor would frequently be given for home work, proved a stimulus to all the children, and especially to Mary. She had gained something—a constructive frame of mind—a habit of success. She became three times as good a worker at school, ten times as good a worker at home and

a hundred times happier girl both at school and home. Needless to say her mother was happy as her heavy household cares were in part assumed by her healthy daughter. When graduation time came Mary's mother spoke to me, and she made no attempt to conceal her pride. "Mary is such a *good* girl," she said.

The next fall I became county superintendent and encouraged home work through a "school fair" where every year the children of the county exhibit their handiwork and garden products.

#### THE SPREAD OF THE MOVEMENT

It was not until I had begun teaching in the University of Oregon that it occurred to me to set forth my plan of giving classroom credit for home work, for the consideration of other teachers and of parents. I wrote a short article on the subject, and had it published in most of the Oregon papers in June, 1910. A year later the idea began to bear fruit; three home-credit schools were established in the winter of 1911-1912, soon to be followed by others. I quote from the article:

How can the school help the home? How can it help the home establish habits in the children of systematic performance of home duties so that they will be efficient and joyful home helpers? One way is for the school to take into account home industrial work and honor it. It is my conviction, based upon careful and continuous observation, that the school can greatly increase the interest the child will take in home industrial work by making it a subject of consideration at school. A teacher talked of sewing, and the girls sewed. She talked of ironing, and they wanted to learn to iron neatly. She talked of working with tools, and both girls and boys made bird houses, kites, and other things of interest. . . .

The school can help make better home-builders. It can help by industrial work done in the school. The plan I have in mind will cost no money, will take but little school time, and can be put into operation in every part of the state at once. It will create a demand for expert instruction later on. It is to give school credit for industrial work done at home. The mother and father are to be recognized as teachers, and the school teacher put into the position of one who cares about the habits and tastes of the whole child. Then the teacher and the parents will have much in common. Every home has the equipment for industrial work and has some one who uses it with more or less skill.

The school has made so many demands on the home that the parents have in some cases felt that all the time of the child must be given to the school. But an important thing that the child needs along with school work is established habits of home-making. . . . In my opinion it will be a great thing for the child to want to help his parents do the task that needs to be done and to want to do it in the best possible way. The reason why so many country boys are now lead-

ing men of affairs is because early in life they had home responsibilities thrust upon them. I am sure that the motto "Everybody Helps" is a good one.

But one says: "How can it be brought about? How can the school give credit for industrial work done at home?" It may be done by sending home printed slips asking the parents to take account of the work that the child does at home under their instruction, and explaining that credit will be given for this work on the school record. These slips must be used according to the age of the child, for it must be clearly recognized that children must have time for real play. The required tasks must not be too arduous, yet they must be real tasks. They must not be tasks that will put extra work on parents except in the matter of instruction and observation. They may well call for the care of animals, and should include garden work for both boys and girls. Credit in school for home industrial work (with the parents' consent) should count as much as any one study in school.

To add interest to the work, exhibitions should be given at stated times so that all may learn from each other and the best be the model for all.

#### DEFINITE SCHOOL CREDITS FOR HOME WORK

Since that time dozens of interesting printed record cards have been devised, yet many schools still use the simple plan of daily notes from the parent to the teacher. Daily or weekly reports are found more successful than less frequent ones. The lists of home tasks<sup>1</sup> issued by various teachers and superintendents include everything "from plowing to washing the baby for breakfast." The incentives vary, too; some schools have a contest for credits, with prizes at the end of the year, but the large number give marks, usually totals of credits, to all the students. Some schools give holidays as rewards, some add a few credits to the study in which the child most needs credit (with the frequently observed result that the child works hard for real proficiency in that study) while others find it sufficient to mark home work as one study on the report card. One of our most successful Portland teachers merely issues the home work cards and receives them when filled, and registers the fact that they are filed in a record book, yet by her attitude of encouragement she has had most of her pupils doing home work faithfully for three years. The important thing seems to be the valuation put upon the children's out-of-school efforts by the teacher. Many boys are glad to get credit for household tasks, when the work is considered honorable and the other boys are doing it. "Every boy should know how to sew, just as every girl should know how to whittle.

<sup>1</sup>For complete home-credit plans see the author's book *School Credit for Home Work*, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., New York.

Every boy should know how to cook, just as every girl should know how to swim. Skill in the elemental arts is a form of what Henderson calls human wealth. All should participate."

Some cards made out for city schools give a large place to hygiene, to care of books, clothes, etc., to getting lessons on time, going to bed on time and going to school on time "without constant urging." Others give such urban tasks as "sweeping sidewalk," "driving delivery wagon," "carrying a paper route." Some schools encourage children to do the things that boy scouts and camp fire girls do.

Some of the high schools have very complete arrangements for home work as a part of the practice in manual training, agriculture, cooking, sewing, or the commercial studies, and take account of vacation work, too. Music lessons, under accredited teachers; and Bible study, tested by an examination given by the school, are credited in many high schools. The maximum credit allowed for industrial work is usually two units out of the fifteen or sixteen required for graduation.

## THE SPREAD OF THE SCHOOL MANSE IDEA

BY GEORGE E. VINCENT, LL.D.,

President of the University of Minnesota.

The essentials for an efficient school are: (1) competent teachers, (2) expert supervision, (3) adequate housing and (4) proper equipment. In these four respects American rural schools have been outclassed by town and city systems. Of late progress has been made toward improved education in the country districts. Consolidation solves admirably the problem of housing and equipment. The county-unit, the appointee superintendency and the supervisory corps offer hopeful prospects of a stimulating administration. Better salaries and higher requirements for certification are slowly drawing a more competent class of teachers into rural service. One of the chief obstacles, however, to this movement is the absence, in country communities, of satisfactory living conditions for teachers. The problem of rural education will never be solved until this issue has been clearly recognized and squarely met.

The older countries of Europe have long recognized that the proper housing of teachers is as much a duty of school authorities as the provision of class rooms, laboratories and gymnasia. In Denmark every rural school has its teachers' house with kitchen garden and flower garden. The schoolmaster and his assistants live on the school grounds. The institution is not a place deserted for all but a few hours in the day; it is rather a permanent residence of community leaders. Little wonder that the Denmark<sup>1</sup> schoolmaster holds his place year after year. It is not unusual for a principal to devote his whole life to one or two communities. Throughout Germany practically the same system prevails with the same results in educational efficiency and community leadership. In France every rural teacher is provided at public expense with living quarters. The same system is well established and is spreading in Sweden, Norway and Finland.

In various parts of the United States significant experiments in providing houses for teachers have been made. In Hawaii one-

<sup>1</sup>See *Rural Denmark and Its Schools*, Harold W. Foght, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915.

third of the schools have cottages built at public expense. In the state of Washington notable progress has been made in furnishing living quarters for teachers. North Dakota has twenty-two schools equipped in this way. Mississippi, North Carolina, Illinois, Tennessee and Oklahoma have made promising experiments. In St. Louis County, Minnesota, twenty-five rural school teachers live, in groups of two and three, in cottages built and completely furnished at public expense.

A teachers' house or school manse is peculiarly necessary to the success of the consolidated rural school which, it is now agreed, is to be the typical country school of the future. There should be built, in connection with the consolidated school on the same grounds with the school building and heated by the same plant, a permanent house for the use of the teaching staff. This building should contain a wholly separate apartment for the principal and his family, living room and bed-rooms for the women teachers, laundry, kitchens, etc. It should be equipped with a view to providing in the community a model of tasteful and economical domestic furnishing and decoration. The rentals and other charges should be so regulated as to provide for the maintenance, insurance, repairs and renewals of equipment, but not for a sinking-fund. The house should be regarded as a part of the school plant and included in the regular bond issue for construction. A privately owned manse in Illinois is netting 8 per cent on an investment of \$10,000.

The manse has a bearing in several ways upon the educational work of the school. Flowers and vegetable gardens are natural features of school premises which are also residence quarters. The domestic science work of the school can be connected in valuable ways with the practical problems of manse management. The cost accounting offers a capital example of bookkeeping. The use of the school as a community center is widened and its value enhanced. The school as an institution takes on a more vital character in the eyes of the countryside.

Most important of all is the effect upon the teacher. Comfortably heated, well-lighted quarters, comradeship with colleagues—and at the same time personal privacy—a satisfying, coöperatively managed table, independence of the petty family rivalries of a small community, a recognized institutional status, combine to attract to the consolidated rural school manse teachers of a type

which will put the country school abreast of the modern educational movement. It is futile to preach the gospel of sacrifice for the cause of rural education. There is no reason why rural teachers should be called upon to sacrifice themselves. They ought not to do it, and they will not do it. The school manse is not a fad, nor a luxury; it is a fundamental necessity.

## CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

BY ARTHUR J. JONES, PH.D.,

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The term "continuation school" as used in this country is still indefinite and does not refer to any one type of school. It was first generally used as a translation of the German term *Fortbildungsschulen* which refers to a particular type of school established in Germany for the benefit of young people who have passed the compulsory school age and are at work, but who still need the help of the school. These schools, while primarily vocational, often give training along general lines. In this country the term has been used in an even more general sense. Roughly speaking, all schools of any type which offer to people, young or old, *while they are at work*, opportunity for further training or education may be considered continuation schools. The work offered may be in fundamentals; it may be cultural or it may be vocational, or all of these; the essential condition seems to be that those enrolled shall actually be at work during the major part of the time.

### CLASSIFICATION

According to this definition there are many types of schools now offering continuation work. The following brief classification may serve to give a general idea of the scope of the movement in this country and of the several types of schools:

- (1) Private and philanthropic schools.
  - (a) Classes in connection with the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations and other organizations of a similar nature.
  - (b) Correspondence courses.
  - (c) University extension.
  - (d) Evening classes in colleges and universities.
  - (e) Special institutions, such as Cooper Union, Pratt Institute, Spring Garden Institute, etc.
- (2) Apprentice schools, such as those in connection with the General Electric Company, etc.
- (3) Schools in connection with various mercantile establishments.

- (4) Public schools.
  - (a) Evening schools.
  - (b) Coöperative schools.
  - (c) Part time or "continuation schools."

More recently there has been a definite tendency to restrict the term "continuation schools" to those public schools established especially for minors between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years or older who are already at work.

#### DESCRIPTION OF TYPES OF SCHOOLS

The present article will attempt to give merely a general description of the work given in some private and philanthropic schools and in the apprenticeship schools and a more detailed account of that done under public auspices in the evening schools, the part-time schools, and the coöperative schools.

##### (1) PRIVATE AND PHILANTHROPIC AGENCIES

(a) *Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Association classes.* During the past twenty-five years there has been a tremendous development in the purely educational work of these two organizations. Rural associations emphasize the social features, while those in the large cities place special emphasis upon definite instruction in a wide variety of subjects.

By no means all associations have this work well organized. In those cities where the work is well organized the classes are conducted in the following general lines: (1) commercial, including arithmetic, bookkeeping, stenography, business law, typewriting, etc.; (2) political, including civil government, social economics, history, etc.; (3) industrial, including such subjects as drawing, carpentry, etc.; (4) scientific, including algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, etc.; (5) language and miscellaneous, including English, German, French, music, first aid to the injured, etc.; (6) special courses, such as law, art, automobile, etc. In addition to these there is the boys' department, which offers various special courses to employed boys. These classes are, for the most part, in the evening and attract men of all ages from twelve to sixty. The teachers employed are usually strong in their special lines and the work is made very profitable. One of the most powerful factors in directing and unifying the educational activities of the various

associations is the educational department of the international committee. This occupies only an advisory relation, but has proved itself of great value in strengthening the work. An expert secretary is employed who gives his whole time to the study of the educational activities and to visiting the associations. Every year the international committee publishes a carefully prepared prospectus of all courses of study together with suggestions as to methods of improvement. In this way the efforts are unified, growth is promoted, weak associations are encouraged, and the whole work strengthened.

Another agency that strengthens and unifies the work is the system of international examinations. The questions are carefully prepared by a board of examiners composed of men eminent in their specialties, and are given to the students under very strict regulations. The international examiners also look over and pass upon all papers. There can be no question that the students passed in these examinations are as well prepared in the particular subjects as the majority of students in universities who pursue the same subjects. This is shown in the increasing recognition of the international certificates at their face value by the different colleges and universities. Inasmuch as all students are required to join the association and in addition to pay a fee for the course, the opportunities appeal only to those who have some ready money and do not reach the very poor. Nevertheless, the classes are of great importance especially in the larger cities.

The educational work of the Y. W. C. A. has been organized more recently than that of the Y. M. C. A., and is not yet so varied in character. Courses are offered in typewriting, stenography, commercial branches, languages, salesmanship, cooking and sewing, dressmaking, millinery, domestic science, and other related subjects. While much of the work is given in the evening, a considerable part is offered during the day.

(b) *Correspondence schools.* Correspondence schools are conducted in connection with various educational institutions and as purely commercial enterprises. The former types are described in the article by Dean Reber on page 182 and the latter in the article by Professor Galloway on page 202. The experience of educational institutions with regard to correspondence courses is varied. Many have found them unsatisfactory and unprofitable, while

others, as the University of Chicago, are now operating them successfully. In no case, however, are they accepted as an entire substitute for resident work. The plan is undoubtedly meeting with considerable success, and many are reached who would not or could not take regular work in residence. The correspondence schools established for commercial reasons are in many cases entirely successful as financial enterprises. It is somewhat more difficult to estimate their value as educational institutions. In spite of the evident commercial element there can be no doubt that this type of school is doing a needed service in the education of the more ambitious of the working people. The very energy of the solicitors brings the opportunity to many a man and to many a woman who otherwise would not think such a thing possible for them.

(c) *University extension.* A complete account of this work is given in the article by Dean Reber found on page 182 of this volume and need not be described here.

(d) *Evening classes in colleges and universities.* The gradual enlargement of the idea of public service by colleges and universities is still further represented by the introduction of special evening classes to meet the needs of those who are at work. There are many institutions throughout the country now conducting such classes. Among them may be mentioned the University of Pennsylvania and Temple University, of Philadelphia, Northwestern University and New York University.

While nearly every type of work is offered in various institutions, the work in the Evening School of Accounts and Finance at the University of Pennsylvania represents fairly well the aim and purpose of such work in general. Courses are now offered in Preparation for Business, Accounting, Advertising, Salesmanship, Business Correspondence, Brokerage, Insurance, Economics and Real Estate. The work is given by the regular staff of the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce, supplemented by special lectures by business men and technical experts. Applicants must be at least eighteen years of age and have had the equivalent of at least three years in a standard secondary school or have had extended business experience. Upon the completion of twenty-four units of prescribed work, a certificate of proficiency is granted to the student.

(e) *Special schools.* There are various educational institutions,

philanthropic and semi-philanthropic in their character, which reach the working classes to a greater or less degree. Some of them such as the Franklin Institute in Philadelphia, the People's Institute in Boston, and Cooper Union and the Mechanics' Institute in New York City, have been established expressly for the training and instruction of young men and women who are at work. Others, like the Lewis Institute in Chicago, the Drexel Institute in Philadelphia, and the Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, are more distinctly scientific or technical schools of high grade, and aim to give thorough courses leading to a degree or certificate. Nearly all the institutions of this kind also have evening classes for the benefit of those who are at work. The great variety of courses offered and the diversity of organization make it impossible to give anything like an adequate description of the work done. There can be no doubt, however, that the service rendered by these institutions to young men and women who are at work and who can avail themselves of the opportunities is very great indeed, notwithstanding they can reach only a comparatively small part of those who need help.

#### (2) APPRENTICESHIP SCHOOLS

For many years employers have realized that there must be some plan devised by which the deficiencies in the training of apprentices could be overcome. Many factories and business houses have attempted to solve the problem by organizing within their own establishments schools which have for their purpose the training of the apprentice. Sometimes, in addition to the training along specific lines, a general training is given. There are many of these schools throughout the country, among them such well known ones as those of the General Electric Company of Lynn, Massachusetts; the New York Central Lines and other railways; Southern Bell Telephone Company of Atlanta, Georgia; the Yale and Towne Manufacturing Company of Hartford, Connecticut; and the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio. These schools are all under the direct control of the corporations concerned, and the type of training given, while extremely varied, is all in the direction of a definite training along the specific lines of the industry concerned. The instruction is usually given by master-workmen, by engineers, foremen, etc., chosen from the regular staff of workmen, and is narrowly vocational, supplementing and amplifying the

practical work of the shop. The apprentices usually receive the regular pay of apprentices while attending this school.

#### (3) SCHOOLS FOR CLERKS

A variant from the type of school just described is furnished by the schools conducted by various mercantile establishments for the benefit of their clerks. The needs of this class of workers are obviously harder to meet than those of apprentices. Many, if not the majority, of the larger mercantile establishments now have their welfare departments, but not so many have definite provision for educational classes. Some firms, after years of experiment, have abandoned them, partly because of the increasing value of the public evening schools and partly because the returns did not seem to justify the time and money spent upon the school. Two of the most successful schools of this type are those of John Wanamaker of Philadelphia and of Sears, Roebuck & Company of Chicago. In the Philadelphia establishment of John Wanamaker a complete and well organized plan has been worked out by which the young employes receive educational and commercial training which aims to make them more efficient. The name recently given to the higher department of this school is the American University of Trade and Applied Commerce.

#### (4) PUBLIC CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

There are in general three principal classes of schools under public auspices which offer opportunity for further education to those who are at work: evening schools, coöperative schools and part-time schools. No hard and fast line can be drawn between these classes of schools, for each varies widely and shades insensibly into the other. The general purpose and plan of each will be explained and the extent of its influence and significance discussed.

(a) *Public evening schools.* This type of school has existed in the United States since the middle of the past century, but it is only within the past twenty-five years that it has been taken seriously, and the greatest development has been in the last ten or fifteen years. The total enrollment in evening schools reported to the United States Bureau of Education since 1890 is as follows: 1890—150,770; 1900—190,000; 1905—292,319; 1910—374,364;

1914—614,068. While these figures are not entirely comparable and are undoubtedly incomplete, there can be no question that the enrollment during the past decade has increased nearly if not quite 100 per cent. In a few states, cities of a certain size are compelled by law to establish evening schools, while in the majority of states the establishment of such schools is permissive or compulsory on the petition of a certain number of parents or citizens.

The classes of pupils in the evening schools are: (1) Those who are deficient in the rudiments, or who have not had an education equivalent to that of our elementary schools. Probably 85 per cent of the total number of pupils are of this class. This class is composed of native Americans and of foreigners. In cities which receive large numbers of immigrants the percentage of the foreigners in the evening schools is very large, while in other cities it is much smaller than the percentage of native Americans. (2) The second class is made up of those young people who have passed through the elementary grades or even partly through the high school, and who wish to continue their education. The needs of this class are as varied as their occupations. Some wish to prepare for entrance to college or university. The greater part, however, wish to prepare themselves for higher positions, for greater efficiency in the occupations in which they are engaged. From these has come an increasing demand for technical and trade work, and it is very largely this class which is found in our few evening trade and technical high schools. (3) Another class, more or less distinct from the last, consists of men in business who wish help along special lines. There are very few opportunities for such training in our public evening schools. The Evening School of Trades, in Springfield, Mass., meets this need in a way, and sometimes the classes of the Y. M. C. A. in a few cities.

The nature of the work offered in these schools varies widely with the classes of pupils enrolled. For foreigners who need to learn to use the English language as quickly as possible special text books and a special technique have been developed in some of our cities, and the results are for the most part fairly satisfactory. It is much more difficult to meet the needs of the second class—those who have completed their elementary school work. For these, evening high schools have been established in many cities, industrial

and technical courses are maintained and the work has become widely diversified.

It has become increasingly apparent, however, that there are distinct limitations to the usefulness of the evening school. The amount of time given is very small compared with that of the day school. The usual time is two hours per evening for four evenings a week and twenty weeks a year, making a total of only one hundred and sixty hours altogether. Add to this the fact that the pupil has practically no time for study, that he is tired and sleepy, and we begin to realize how meagre are these educational opportunities at best. The conviction is growing that work which presupposes mental alertness, such as technical work, drawing, mathematics, science, history, languages, and other studies pursued for the purpose of distinct achievement, can not profitably be given in the evening to mature pupils. The kind of work which can be pursued to advantage must be more recreative and broadly cultural such as lectures, music, drama and general informational courses as well as gymnastics, swimming, dancing and games.

Two of the principal difficulties met with in the administration of evening schools are irregular attendance and lack of proper teachers. The percentage of attendance on enrollment is very low, ranging from 20 to 60, or a little lower. Various methods have been employed to counteract this irregularity. The most common plan, and one that is fairly successful, is to charge a nominal fee, \$1 or more, a term. This is refunded at the end of the term in case a certain standard of attendance has been attained. Several states now have laws compelling pupils of certain ages not attending other schools to attend evening schools. Many of the difficulties would be solved if suitable teachers could be secured. It still continues the custom in many places to employ as teachers in the evening schools any persons—clerks, young lawyers, students and others who need a little extra money. Some schools employ the regular day school teachers, but this is only one step better. It is doubtful whether a regularly employed day school teacher should attempt to do additional regular work in an evening school. Again, evening school work calls for a different kind of ability than that of the day school. Before the evening school can be truly successful we shall need to have teachers specially adapted to this particular kind of work and specially trained for it.

Several interesting modifications of evening schools have been tried in various cities. Camp schools are authorized by law in at least two states—California and New York. These are for the special purpose of teaching English to foreigners, both adults and minors, who are not readily reached by the regular evening schools and are held in the labor camps. In the larger cities there is a definite movement for the introduction of larger social and recreational features, such as lectures, entertainments, social gatherings, debating leagues, dancing, gymnastics and the like. The movement is thus closely linked with that for the wider use of the school plant, the socializing of the school. Just what the development of these types of schools will be is somewhat problematical, but they are now firmly established as a part of our school systems, and it only remains to demonstrate what their greatest field of usefulness will be. As a substitute for consecutive work, of an intensive character, they are wholly inadequate; as a supplement to such work they have large possibilities.

(b) *Coöperative schools.* These schools are merely modifications of apprenticeship schools where the school is operated and financed by the public and the shop work is under the charge of the factory or other industrial establishment. The general plan is much the same. A coöperative agreement is entered into between the Board of Education and the employer. In many instances this agreement includes also the apprentice and his parent or guardian. In accordance with the agreement the boys are arranged in two shifts or alternates. One student apprentice works at the shop one week while his alternate attends the school; the next week the first one takes his place in the school and the alternate works in the shop. Each receives the wages of an apprentice while engaged in the shop, and both usually work in the shop full time on Saturdays and during school vacation.

In the coöperative plan in operation in connection with the University of Cincinnati, the work in the university consists of the regular courses in engineering, and while some attempt is made to make a direct connection between the shop work and that of the regular courses they do not supplement one another so closely as in most of the other coöperative schools. The course at the University of Cincinnati is planned for six years and leads to the regular degrees.

In the coöperative schools organized in connection with the regular public schools the work is more distinctly industrial in character. The shop work and the class room work are very closely related. The mathematical problems are taken from the problems of the shop or are directly related to them. The aim is to make the entire class work as practical as possible and at the same time give cultural elements and so to broaden the horizon of the young apprentice. Such schools are now successfully maintained in Cincinnati, Ohio; Providence, Rhode Island; Fitchburg and Beverly, Massachusetts; Hammond, Indiana; Rochester and Buffalo, New York and many other cities. They have many obvious advantages over evening schools. Among these advantages are: (1) close correlation between shop work and class work; (2) more favorable time for study; (3) possibility of self-support; (4) wider and more general training.

The principal difficulty is the same as that of the evening schools—suitable teachers. The ordinary public school teacher knows nothing about shop work and cannot adapt the class work to the needs of the shop. On the other hand, the master-workmen or the mechanic does not usually know how to teach and frequently does not care to do so. A new type of teacher is urgently needed for these schools, one who has had shop experience and who also has studied widely and knows how to teach.

(c) *Part time or "continuation schools."* During the past few years there has been a decided movement in the direction of establishing part time schools for apprentices and other employees between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years to whom this instruction shall be given during the day. This follows closely the present German plan which was adopted after years of trial of evening schools and Sunday schools. These schools are in the experimental stage in this country as yet and vary greatly in their organization. The general features common to the majority are: (1) they are for boys and girls from fourteen to sixteen years or older who are regularly employed; (2) they are planned for from four to eight hours a week between 8 A. M. and 6 P. M. At least nine states now provide by law for such schools. The tendency seems to be to allow the local authority to compel attendance at such schools between the ages of fourteen and sixteen for those employed and

who are not attending other types of schools. As yet this compulsory feature is not general. In Pennsylvania the state law which went into effect January 1, 1916, forbids the employment of any minor between the ages of fourteen and sixteen who does not attend such a school or one giving equivalent instruction.

These schools are as yet in the experimental stage and, in consequence, have no well defined aim nor course of study, nor have they developed any methods specially adapted to the needs of the pupils. They have been established because of a conviction that the boys and the girls between fourteen and sixteen or older who are at work still need further school training. Whether this training shall be along general lines, supplementing the fundamental work of the elementary school, or whether it shall be in the direction of supplementing, broadening and intensifying the industrial, commercial or other work in which they are engaged has not yet been determined; it may well be both. It must in addition provide for a study of different occupations with a view to a more intelligent choice of vocations. The obstacles met with in the establishment of these schools are much the same as those in the other types of schools already described: (1) lack of properly qualified teachers; (2) limited time, eight hours a week which is at best a small fraction of the time needed; (3) the tremendously varied needs of the pupils in each school, making it extremely difficult to outline any course of study which is adequate. An initial difficulty often met was the refusal of the employer to coöperate and a threat to discharge any young employee who should go to such a school, but this is due largely to lack of understanding and in most cases has been successfully overcome. These schools bid fair to accomplish much that is worth while for the young worker, and present experience will show ways in which they can be modified to meet more fully the needs of the young people reached.

These varying types of continuation schools illustrate clearly the double purpose of education as it is seen in this country: (1) to give every individual that education and training which will furnish him equality of opportunity; (2) to educate and train every individual in such a way as to provide for the safety and for the development of the state. The gradual assumption by the state of the organization and support of such work shows the develop-

ment and enlargement of our educational ideal and the widening of our educational horizon. It is a reasonable inference that at no very distant time the state will be compelled to assume larger responsibility for all those forces that train and educate not only the immature but also the adult.

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## UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

BY LOUIS E. REBER, D.Sc.,

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The phenomenal growth of University Extension in the United States in the past ten years may be looked upon as indicative of a new interpretation of the legitimate scope of university service. Nevertheless, it is still maintained in many of our learned institutions that higher education should be removed from any possible intimacy with the common things of life. These institutions repudiate the idea that organized extension of their services may become a worthy function among their acknowledged activities—worthy not only in enabling them to reach greater numbers than the few who may assemble within their gates, but essentially so in its influence upon their own life and growth. Though with these, as with the more liberal, pursuit of the truth is the fundamental and all-embracing object of existence, they apparently fail to realize that truth does not belong to the cloister more than to the shops and homes or to the streets and fields, but is inseparably of them all.

The return of power to the institution is not, however, the main justification of University Extension. Such justification exists primarily in the fact that the university is the one great source and repository of the knowledge which the people—all, not merely a few, of the people—need in order to reach their highest level of achievement and well-being.

Is it not a very uncharacteristic view of the field of the university which seems to limit its functions to those of a sealed storehouse with facilities for giving out its invaluable contents only to the few who may be able to learn the cabalistic passes that unlock its doors? More in keeping with the modern spirit is the new slogan of unlimited service which lays upon the university a command to retrieve to the world its losses from undiscovered talent and undeveloped utilities and to give freely to humanity the pleasures and profits of which so many are deprived by ignorance of the work of the masters of art and learning, and of the laws of sane living. For such purposes as these the university, in the full-

ness of its possessions and powers, must inevitably be acknowledged to be, in the words of President Van Hise, "the best instrument."

#### WHAT IS UNIVERSITY EXTENSION?

University Extension may be defined as an agency of popular education by which the benefits of the university are extended to the entire population without other prerequisite on the part of this large student body than the desire to learn and the ability to make use of the service. This does not imply a new or original philosophy of education, but presents a practical and proportionate method by which are met the requirements of a democratic form of government, a form which theoretically, at least, rests upon the principle that the vigor and permanence of the nation depend upon the intelligence of its whole people.

In England, as early as 1850, an expression was used that has since become a by-word in the language of University Extension. "Though it may be impossible," said an early advocate of the movement, "to bring the masses requiring education to the university, may it not be possible to carry the university to them?" This phrase, "carry the university to them" (the people), expresses very simply the underlying purpose of extension. Another phrase of earlier date points to the need for "the taking of a definite part by the university in the education of persons who had not been matriculated." Thus over half a century ago and under the more aristocratic circumstances of English life, the university was called upon to take a part in the spread of education among the masses and the name, University Extension, even at that time, was added to terms already familiar in educational nomenclature. The words intramural and extramural also came into use at this time as applied to work taken at the institution and outside of or beyond its walls, and later the words resident and non-resident were used as applied to students and courses of study. These terms explain themselves in a general way but have slowly grown to connote certain definite relations in modern education, the significance of which will appear in the following account of the development of extension.

#### HISTORY OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The old English system of University Extension which grew out of the deliberations and experiments made in the middle of the nineteenth century consisted in lecture courses accompanied by

syllabi, with assignments of collateral reading and, finally, written examinations. The work was conducted by university professors, who through the agency of local committees or by personal solicitation formed classes in circuits of non-university communities. This method depended for its success almost wholly upon the superficial gifts and personality of the lecturer, who in order to hold his classes together must possess the faculties not only of a scholar, but also of a teacher, a social leader, and an orator. So versatile a professor was seldom found and yet for a time this form of extension met with an encouraging reception. The weaknesses of the method developed soon and modifications were adopted which led to the establishment of the present tutorial system. These changes were accomplished through the agency of an administrative board comprising representatives of both the capitalistic and the laboring classes. Extension methods became in this evolution less severely academic and more serviceable to persons who must study without interrupting the ordinary interests and occupations of their lives.

When in 1887 University Extension, its more aristocratic form as yet unmodified, was brought to America, its liberal promise of educational opportunity in exact keeping with democratic ideals, at once gained for it many friends. The method was first described at a library conference, in Albany, N. Y., and almost immediately beginnings of University Extension were made in the cities of Buffalo, Chicago, and St. Louis, as a form of library service.

In 1889, Columbia University announced through Teachers College elementary courses in science for the benefit of school teachers in New York City and its environs.

In 1890, the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, supported by private subscription, was organized in Philadelphia.

In 1891, the first state appropriation for University Extension, \$10,000, was made by the state of New York.

In 1891, Chicago organized a privately endowed society which in 1892 was taken over by the University of Chicago. In the latter year, the University of Wisconsin also began its organized work of extension.

In December, 1891, a national congress on University Extension was held in Philadelphia. This meeting brought together

representatives of colleges and universities, libraries and privately supported extension societies. The reports showed a remarkable growth. Between 1887 and December, 1891, barely four years, twenty-eight attempts to introduce University Extension had been made, a few of them with, but the greater number without, financial support. The delegation to this congress displayed great enthusiasm, but the subsequent history of extension in the United States gives rise to the belief that some, at least, of those present were visionary theorists, rather than experienced and practical educators. This was the last gathering in the interest of University Extension for many years; a rapid decline in the progress of the work began almost at once.

The period of depression in the extension movement may be attributed to the difficulty met in securing financial provision for an educational departure at once so radical and so little understood, also, no doubt, to the almost impossible requirements in the qualifications of the instructors, and very considerably to lack of appreciation to the extent even of dislike for the method within the institution, a condition which led to much open criticism and deliberate efforts to check its growth. Above all, however, the decline must be attributed to the inadequacy of the plan as an adaptation of university service to the special needs and circumstances of a non-resident student body.

After ten or more years of fluctuation recovery came as the result of a truer interpretation of the ends to be gained and a clearer recognition of the difficulties to be overcome. With the adoption of more suitable methods, it became possible to demonstrate the value of the work and to convince legislators that this service as offered by the state institution, at least, is in reality an extension of opportunity to their constituents, and worthy, therefore, of the legislative support indispensable to its continuance.

From this time, about 1906, the growth of extension was assured particularly in the state institutions, which, as will be seen, form a majority among those extending their services beyond the traditional campus.

"The tight little idea that education is the concern of childhood and certain rigid formalities of place and plan has broken down," said a student of extension, "and hundreds of agencies more or less organized are carrying whatever instruction people

want, directly to the people who want it, wherever they may be found." University Extension which includes and epitomizes all of these agencies, the same writer calls "a deeply significant movement to saturate the whole people with the upward tendencies and convictions of education."

In 1910 some inquiries were made with respect to the status, at that time, of extension in the United States. From letters sent to seventy-five institutions, sixty-five replies were received and fifty-four of these reported some form of University Extension; twenty-three were state institutions; the work of fifteen was well organized under the management of a dean, director or Extension committee; twenty-two offered credit courses, eleven by correspondence-study; in the larger cities classes similar to those conducted at the university but away from it and at hours convenient for workers were meeting a need; lecture courses with class features had been largely, not wholly, superseded by more popular courses of the lyceum type; and many institutions were using extension merely as an aid to elementary school teachers in improving their preparation and standing. Financial provision was reported as inadequate or wholly lacking.

Three years later, in 1913, a questionnaire was sent to several hundred institutions, as foundation for the bulletin published, the following year, by the United States Bureau of Education. Extension activities were now reported by 103 institutions, in fifty-one of which the work was described as organized and more or less adequately supported by legislative appropriations—thirty-seven of these fifty-one offering single lectures or courses; thirty-five conducting local classes in elementary, collegiate or advanced subjects, credit or non-credit; thirty-two giving correspondence-study courses, twenty of these including both credit and non-credit work; eighteen offering assistance to elementary schools notably in the establishment of continuation, vocational and industrial branches, seventeen assisting in the formation of debating clubs and supplying library aids; twenty-eight engaging in municipal and community service of many types.

A more recent inquiry made in order to bring the statistics of extension up to date for the National University Extension Association, shows certain definite advances: first, in the number of institutions offering one or more forms of Extension service; second,

in the number of students enrolled in classes or in correspondence-study courses, particularly the increase in numbers studying for credit; third, in the variety of types of Extension activity due in part undoubtedly to the growing demand for the many divisions of state, municipal and community service; and fourth, in the enormous total increase in expenditure.

The three universities, Columbia, Chicago, and Wisconsin, and the Philadelphia Society mentioned as inaugurating extension service between the years 1889 and 1892 are conspicuous in having continued their work consistently from the beginning. Though, as in the case of other early attempts, the course of their development experienced fluctuations, and though from time to time their methods were changed either in form of service or in administration, yet they remained in existence and are now acknowledged leaders among the institutions in which extension has become an organic function.

It may seem remarkable that institutions of private endowment should form a majority among the earliest leaders in this popular movement but it must be remembered that its original form did not present the strong features of practical value that were introduced later. Today institutions of state foundation are greatly in the lead in numbers and in their estimate of the importance of the extramural work. These institutions look upon Extension not only as a duty to the state from which they derive support, but also as an interpreter of themselves to the people and of the people to them, an essential source of strength to both.

Before closing this statistical review of the growth of University Extension some account must be given of the large amount of this service that is offered by institutions with no organized extension but which are doing work along extension lines. Analysis of the several questionnaires from which data are taken shows fully as many, probably more institutions extending their service without definite organization than are shown with this provision. Among these roughly estimated, about 50 per cent are sending out lecturers from among members of the faculty to give single addresses or courses of lectures, with or without remuneration; 15 per cent offer lectures and entertainments, musical, dramatic or one or both combined with lectures; 10 per cent offer correspondence-study conducted by members of the faculty, usually covering the same

subject matter as that offered in classes at the University; 10 per cent offer courses to teachers adapted to their varying requirements; 10 per cent offer informational service to the governing bodies of small towns; also institutes, exhibits, and library and other aids to civic and social betterment. The remaining fraction perform any service they can when opportunities arise. The unorganized service, as a whole, ranges from definite courses offered for university credit, to such undefined service as is laconically reported in one instance, as "Saloons driven out."

#### FORMS OF ADMINISTRATION OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

Among institutions organized for University Extension about one-half administer this work by a department or division devoted specifically to this purpose. Such a department comprises all of the machinery of an independent school or college, with dean or director, secretaries in charge of the several types of extension, heads of lines of work (as, for example, English, Engineering, Mathematics, Latin, History, etc.), instructors, lecturers, text writers, librarians, organizers, and the necessary force of clerical assistants. About one-fourth of the institutions doing organized extension administer it by or in another department of the institution—sometimes The Department of Education, often that of Sociology. Extension in the remaining fourth is divided between administration by a committee or single member of the faculty or by a director and committee of the faculty, the extension board sometimes including also the president of the university and a member or members of the board of trustees or regents.

In the administration of credit courses the association of the extension and resident faculties is naturally intimate, it being necessary in the interest of both that the same requirements be stringently exacted of the non-resident as of the resident students.

Two general methods prevail by which the services of the University are extended to the entire state. The more elaborate of these involves a division of the state into districts in each of which is maintained an administrative force, complete in itself, but under the direction of the central or home organization. The second method is by organization of local volunteer or paid workers, who coöperate with agents of the home office in stimulating the demand for and accomplishing the introduction of whatever service

is offered by the institution. This method varies greatly in the degree of responsibility imposed upon the volunteer worker, the institutions which succeed in effective work maintaining a strong and large corps of organizers who though having headquarters at the institution spend their time in visiting communities in every part of the state.

#### FORMS OF SERVICE

In reviewing the growth of University Extension the several usual types or forms of this service have been mentioned. Descriptions of these types must of necessity be inadequately brief. Some of them fortunately are so generally familiar as to need little comment beyond their enumeration. This is true of the lecture service, which has in recent years become so widespread and potent an influence in disseminating knowledge and moulding public opinion or as an enjoyable investment of leisure hours. The contribution of the university to this work partakes in a majority of instances of the nature of lyceum courses, two main differences existing between the service offered by the commercial Lyceum Bureau and that of the University. The primary difference results from the fact that the University rarely makes this service a source of revenue and is therefore enabled to offer to any community a grade of instruction by lectures or of entertainments usually available only to cities. The other main difference lies in the consistent effort made by the University to introduce as high a quality of service as will be accepted by the community, with the end in view of creating a demand for a better quality in the hope by this policy of progressing from that which is as good as possible to that which is the best possible. The lecture service may be termed cultural rather than educational.

#### EXTRAMURAL AND CORRESPONDENCE-STUDY COURSES

Extramural classes and correspondence-study constitute an extremely important element in University Extension. Possessing features of uniformity they may be grouped together. Through their instrumentality is accomplished the purely educational work of extension—the standardized, graded, consecutive instruction adaptable in its application but carefully controlled and regulated.

These methods of instruction are used in giving work ranging

from the advanced studies taken by persons of professional or official standing for the purpose usually of keeping up with the times, through intermediate grades, to the more elementary courses applied to commercial and industrial vocations.

Both methods offer opportunity for work for academic credit, or not, as desired. Both present features of convenience to the non-resident student in their flexibility as to time and place of study and choice of subject. And either, contrary to the popular notion, may produce a higher average of scholarship than is found within the walls of institutions. A word must be said in support of this contention. The non-resident is as a rule older and more experienced than the resident student and seldom is actuated mainly or solely by ambition to gain a degree. Understanding his educational needs he takes his course for the purpose of mastering a subject.

The prejudice that still views University Extension as a superficial educational method and destructive to scholarship grew up under the old régime, before its changed methods entitled extension to claim an equal rank among other legitimate activities of educational institutions.

Correspondence-study teaching, particularly, though it has suffered its share of obloquy, if fairly interpreted gives to the university its broadest and most gracious opportunity, the opportunity to open its avenues of learning to all who would enter, to graft instruction upon experience, to mould and enrich minds already mature and thoughtful, or to rescue from oblivion undiscovered gifts. It is a method carrying a peculiarly intimate and responsive relation between the instructor and the pupil. To equip for life as well as for livelihood is an ideal that may be realized through this relation. Sympathy and intuition therefore are almost as important among the instructor's qualifications as are knowledge and technical skill. The best men and material resources of the University are demanded for this service.

The statistics quoted show a notable increase in the use of extramural classes and correspondence-study instruction for the purpose of acquiring some part of a regular academic course *in absentia*. No less striking is the growth of work in commercial and industrial education. The need for this service is immeasurably great and extension methods are practical and successful.

The pupil, however backward, cannot fail to see the value of his studies, because they are based on the processes of his daily tasks and though he may not always appreciate the effort made to broaden his outlook, as soon as he realizes that he is on the way to a higher wage he awakens to a new ambition.

For these forms of extension a large amount of special text is prepared, it being necessary, except in credit courses, to adapt the lessons in treatment and scope to the requirements of the individual correspondence student or of the class. A completed course in this original material may form the basis for a book and as a matter of convenience such texts are collated and published as promptly as is practicable. Curiously, a considerable demand has developed for these volumes when placed on the market quite outside of the field of University Extension, a fact that may be regarded as a favorable commentary upon extension methods in popular education.

The publication and circulation of bulletins, pamphlets, and reports dealing with and interpreting matters of general value and interest to the public is a common form of extension activity.

#### THE SERVICE BUREAU

The awakening of interest in public questions by debating and public discussion—particularly in community clubs, community centers, and high school organizations—is one of the oldest methods of extension service. To do this work many institutions are maintaining bureaus which have the dual purpose of collecting popularly prepared information on subjects of current interest (“package libraries”), and of forming debating leagues wherever possible for the purpose of debating important current questions. The method is recognized as of inestimable value in the moulding of public opinion, although unless administered with care and kept scrupulously free from partisan bias, it may prove a menace to the institution promoting it.

Universities are coming to deal more and more through their extension service with the public at large, and with public problems. This has given rise to a distinct form of community and public welfare work, through which the institution deals with a community as an entity, offering technical information on community problems, inciting public interest, and, when necessary, helping the community

to organize for action. In this manner are treated such group problems as child welfare, public health, recreation, and improvements and problems of municipal government. This work is done by means of bureaus of municipal reference, health, child welfare, stereopticon and motion picture service, community music, social and civic center promotion, and through institutes, surveys, and exhibits. The aim of this service is to enlighten and inspire, never to infringe upon the professional field.

In March, 1895, the First National University Extension Conference met at Madison, Wisconsin. Forty-five delegates were present at this Conference representing 24 leading colleges and universities. The occasion led to the formation of a permanent University Extension Association with a membership of 28 institutions.

The meeting tended toward better understanding among extension workers, a clarifying of ideas as to possible standardizations and invaluable exchanges of ideas and experience.

The printed proceedings of this conference are a remarkable record of achievement and enthusiasm. The interpretation they present of the university's new field of service is useful both as an inspiration and a guide to those who are engaged in the development of University Extension.

The new association has already more than justified its existence.

Assuming that leadership is developed within the institution, extension looks to the creating of an intelligent commonalty. This is the day of socializing, the day of the common spread of appreciation of art and literature, the day of prevention, of preventive medicine, preventive law, and preventive religion, each in its field a measure of social safeguarding. Above all and for all it is the day when the university uncovers its light that its rays may illumine with equal power the high places and the low.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See Reber, Louis E. *University Extension in the United States*. Bulletin 19, 1914. United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

## THE "PEOPLE'S UNIVERSITY" OF MASSACHUSETTS

BY JAMES AMBROSE MOYER, PH.D.,

Director of the Department of University Extension of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts.

For a number of years many people in Massachusetts have had visions of a great "People's University" where there would be equal opportunity for all its citizens, rich and poor, men and women, young and old. This commonwealth does not have a state university or state college giving instruction in general and professional subjects. It has, however, a large number of excellent universities and colleges supported by private endowments and tuition fees paid by students. With this large number of institutions of learning in a relatively small state, there has naturally been very much opposition to the establishment of such a state university or state college as should be worthy of the educational standards of the higher institutions of learning in this state. As a partial substitute for a state university the Department of University Extension was established in Massachusetts by an act of the General Court in 1915. Abstracts of the legislation establishing this department are given here:

The department of university extension is hereby authorized to coöperate with existing institutions of learning in the establishment and conduct of university extension and correspondence courses; to supervise the administration of all extension and correspondence courses which are supported in whole or in part by state revenues; and also, where that is deemed advisable, to establish and conduct university extension and correspondence courses for the benefit of residents of Massachusetts.

The said department for the purposes of such university extension or correspondence courses, may, with the consent of the proper city or town officials or school committees, use the school buildings or other public buildings and grounds of any city or town within the commonwealth, and may also use normal school buildings and grounds and, with the consent of the boards or commission in charge of the same, such other school buildings as are owned or controlled by the commonwealth.

According to this legislation the Department of University Extension has practically unlimited opportunities for educational activities, except in subjects relating to agriculture, which subjects

are well provided for in the State Agricultural College at Amherst. Plans for the organization and development of this department are intended to provide the facilities of a real People's University which will bring education of every grade, including college subjects to the "doors of the people."

#### A UNIVERSITY WITHOUT BUILDINGS

To carry out these objects in their fullest development it has seemed undesirable to provide a group of buildings in one location such as are ordinarily associated with the conception of a state university. When one city or town is selected for the location of a state institution, the people living in the immediate vicinity have unusual advantages, and these advantages are exceptionally important in the case of educational institutions in which the charges to students for board and room rent are very large items in the cost of an education. For these reasons, the Massachusetts Department of University Extension has been organized without making any provision for buildings to include recitation rooms and laboratories. Its administrative offices are located temporarily in the State House in Boston. Instruction in a great variety of subjects is now being offered by its professors and instructors in practically every city and town in the commonwealth where there is a reasonable demand.

Massachusetts is unusually well supplied with good buildings for public libraries and public schools. In fact all of the cities and also all the towns except two are provided with public libraries supported by public funds. These libraries and school buildings have rooms well suited for the meetings of university extension classes. The department must not, however, necessarily depend on the use of these public buildings for its classes as the legislation provided clearly for rented offices and buildings as might be required for the use of the department. It is the policy of the director to avoid, whenever possible, charges for rent, janitor services, heat, light, etc., as it seems only reasonable that the community receiving these educational advantages wholly at the expense of the state should provide the necessary rooms and services. In some cases classes have been organized in shops and factories, particularly for the accommodation of those employed in these places. Under such circumstances the

employer is expected to furnish for the classes the rooms and services other than instruction. A beginning has been made in the establishment of industrial classes, under such conditions as will bring educational opportunities in practical subjects not only to the home but also to the bench of the worker. Arrangements have been made and provided for the employment of a special agent of the department to give particular attention to industrial people, as it is believed that the industrial population of Massachusetts should receive unusual consideration. Exceptional opportunities should be offered to encourage their advancement in citizenship as well as in their trades. Similar commercial opportunities are offered in large stores and factories, particularly in accounting and salesmanship, including class instruction and practical demonstration and research in one of the large department stores in Boston famous for its modern methods of doing business.

#### NOT A COMPETITOR OF ESTABLISHED INSTITUTIONS

The educational activities of the Department of University Extension will not be in conflict or in competition with the colleges and universities in Massachusetts; but on the other hand it is the object of the department to supplement the work of these institutions and to coöperate with them in every possible way. Many of the instructors and lecturers employed by the department are secured for part time service from the faculties of these colleges and universities.

Very satisfactory methods of coöperation have been worked out between the colleges in the Connecticut Valley and the Department of University Extension. By these arrangements the department has secured the assistance of an advisory committee consisting of official representatives of Amherst College, the International Y. M. C. A. College, the Massachusetts Agricultural College, Mt. Holyoke College and Smith College. This committee representing the colleges has been very serviceable in suggesting courses of study to be offered, and in securing professors and instructors from the colleges best qualified for extension teaching. A most important service has also been performed by this committee in establishing a uniform rate of compensation for all teachers conducting extension classes, irrespective of their college rank; that is, the same compensation is paid to the teacher of an extension class whether he

happens to be the head of a department or a first-class instructor particularly well qualified for the course given. Obviously, personality is an important consideration in giving extension courses, and is often as important as scholarship.

The organization of the Department of University Extension in Massachusetts began in November, 1915, although the legislation establishing the department was signed by the Governor in the preceding May. Before any work of instruction was commenced, a careful study was made of existing educational institutions in the commonwealth to determine in what ways this new department could coöperate with existing institutions and to discover the lines of educational activity in which the facilities of the department could be most useful. It was necessary at the outset to give the most careful attention in order to avoid duplication of the work of the evening schools in the cities and towns, of state-supported vocational schools, and of educational work planned for the benefit of immigrants. Several months were required to work out the details of an organization suitable for *class* instruction, and, therefore, very little teaching in classes was started before April, 1916.

#### CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

It seemed to be apparent that in conducting correspondence courses there would be little conflict with institutions supported by taxation in Massachusetts. Nearly all educational work of this kind offered in this state except in subjects relating to agriculture, has been done by universities located in other states or by private institutions conducted primarily for profit. Large sums of money were sent out of the state every year in payment for these correspondence courses, and it was one of the objects in the establishment of this department to keep this money in the commonwealth and to give residents of the state opportunities to receive education of this kind on practically a free basis. Another important consideration favoring the early development of correspondence courses was the obvious ease in securing a necessarily large staff of instructors for part time services. Correspondence instruction makes it very easy for the teachers to correct and criticize the lesson papers at times when they are not engaged with duties following a regular program. The State Board of Education, which has supervisory control of the department, believes also that with the rapid de-

velopment of correspondence courses by the method of securing approximately equal publicity in all parts of the state, the registration in these courses indicates in a general way what subjects are likely to be most in demand and in what parts of the state there is the most need for offering the educational opportunities of this department.

The following table shows the subjects selected by a thousand students who were first enrolled in the *correspondence* courses:

Elementary English.....	170	Advanced Algebra (C).....	7
Spanish (C) <sup>1</sup> .....	87	Architectural Drawing.....	6
Civil Service.....	85	Trigonometry (C).....	5
Bookkeeping.....	84	Electric Wiring.....	5
Practical Applied Mathematics.....	82	Strength of Materials (C).....	5
Mechanical Drawing (C).....	52	Heating and Lighting for Janitors.....	5
Shop Arithmetic.....	38	Elementary Geometry.....	5
English Composition A (C).....	34	Practical Mechanics.....	4
Gasoline Automobiles.....	31	Practical Machine Design (C).....	4
English for New Americans.....	26	Descriptive Geometry (C).....	4
Dietetics (C).....	25	Stenography.....	4
Industrial Accounting (C).....	21	Lumber and Its Uses.....	3
Freehand Drawing.....	19	Reinforced Concrete (C).....	3
Elementary Algebra.....	18	Elements of Structures (C).....	3
Retail Selling.....	16	Materials of Construction.....	3
Plain English.....	15	Heating and Ventilating (C).....	2
Shop Sketching.....	13	Civics for New Americans.....	2
English Composition B (C).....	13	Typewriting.....	2
Concrete and Its Uses.....	11	Study of Fabrics.....	2
Industrial Management (C).....	10	United States History A (C).....	2
Commercial Correspondence.....	10	American Government (C).....	1
Economics (C).....	10	Sociology (C).....	1
Practical Steam Engineering.....	9	Hydraulics (C).....	1
Highway Engineering (C).....	8	Electric Machinery (C).....	1
Home Furnishing and Decoration.....	8	Heat.....	1
Practical Electricity.....	8	Solid Geometry.....	1
Plumbing.....	8		
Advanced Shop Mathematics.....	7	Total.....	1,000

<sup>1</sup> Courses marked (C) are of college grade.

The first enrollments in correspondence courses were received January 19, 1916, and this date may be considered the official opening of the department for educational activities. In a few weeks after this date the correspondence courses were well enough established and the work was sufficiently organized to make possible the consideration of a new development.

## THE ORGANIZATION OF STUDY GROUPS

By this arrangement when more than ten students in a city or town agree to meet together once a week in a suitable class or conference room for mutual helpfulness in the study of their correspondence lessons, the department arranges to send one of the instructors in that course to meet with them at every fourth meeting of the class. When the instructor is present he discusses the difficulties which the class may have had with preceding lessons and explains also some of the difficulties the class is likely to have in the next three lessons. It is believed that the enrollment of correspondence students in study groups is an important improvement over the usual correspondence methods. Two other matters are receiving special attention in the organizing and conducting of these correspondence courses. Unusual efforts are being made to make the lesson papers of exceptional interest from the viewpoint of holding the attention of the reader. It is the general experience of those engaged in correspondence instruction that the ordinary type of textbooks, particularly the kind used in colleges, is most unsatisfactory. In the second place, unusual attention is being given to the matter of following up the work of students and in giving every possible encouragement to those who appear to be losing interest or seem to have unusual difficulties in preparing their lessons.

Another development in the methods of instruction of the department was the organizing of class instruction which differs from the methods adopted for the correspondence study groups in that these classes have an instructor in the course present at every meeting, presumably once a week. The instruction given in this class is exactly equivalent to the work given by correspondence. It is very necessary, therefore, that at each meeting of the class the same subject matter should be discussed and used for recitation that is included in a lesson as given by correspondence. When this method is followed there is a more or less exact equivalence between the work done in a correspondence course and by class instruction. The same certificate can then be issued for either type of instruction, although obviously there should be a statement to show by what method of instruction the course is taken.

**NO TUITION CHARGED**

University extension as organized in Massachusetts is unique in that the correspondence courses as well as the class instruction are available to all the residents of the state without charge for instruction. These extension courses are therefore conducted upon a basis comparable with a free public school system. In many states there is no charge for instruction for those taking courses in residence at the state college or university; but in practically all these institutions there is a charge for correspondence courses and instruction given in extension classes. The Massachusetts system seems to be especially equitable in this respect. Those who can afford to go to a state college or university where the total charge is at a minimum from \$300 to \$400 per year, even where there is no charge for instruction, are much better able to pay for instruction than those who are most likely to be reached by the extension courses whether by correspondence or in classes. The former group of students is most likely to be representative of the fairly well-to-do people in a community, while the latter are likely to be the sons and daughters of the wage earners who cannot well afford the expense of going away to college on account of the large charges incurred for rooms and board, and who in many cases are earning their living and studying at the same time. Of all the students receiving collegiate instruction, obviously the extension students are least able to pay for instruction.

**INSTRUCTION CENTRES WELL DISTRIBUTED**

In order to make the educational activities of the department as serviceable as possible to all parts of the state, the department arranges to establish classes in any city or town where there seems to be sufficient demand. In the selection of locations for these classes, precedence is given to the larger cities or towns in each of the twenty-eight districts into which the state has been divided, as shown in the accompanying map. This arrangement follows the general plans for the Massachusetts College as proposed originally by public-spirited citizens of Boston.<sup>2</sup> According to this plan, it becomes possible for large numbers of the sons and daughters of the residents of the state to secure a collegiate education

<sup>2</sup> See *Acts of the General Court of Massachusetts of 1909*, House Bill No. 1520.



DISTRICTS FOR EXTENSION CLASSES

in an educational centre near their homes and save very large items in the cost of a college education. When it is possible for these students to live at home, the relatively large expenses for rooms and board are very much reduced. This method seems to be almost ideal for bringing the state college or university to the "doors of the people." As regards the expense to the taxpayers of the commonwealth, there is also a great saving, as by this method, if worked out successfully, many millions of dollars are saved that would otherwise be spent for elaborate college or university buildings.

## CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOL INSTRUCTION BY NON-ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS

BY LEE GALLOWAY, PH.D.,

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A recent issue of a popular magazine contains the advertisements of thirty schools offering instruction by correspondence. The courses cover nearly every known human activity ranging from raising poultry to training engineers. They include instruction in accounting, law, electrical engineering, meter engineering, signal engineering, wireless operating, automobile driving and repairing, lettering and designing, drawing and cartooning, drafting, advertising and selling, public-speaking, watch repairing, executive management, English and even ventriloquism. A person may be made into a traffic inspector, a detective or a musician—all by mail.

### EXTENT OF INFLUENCE

The best measure of the influence of these schools is the number of students enrolled and the amount of money spent in preparing the courses of instruction as well as in advertising them. One school offering four main courses—accounting, law, traffic management and business administration—has enrolled 90,000 students. A correspondence law school has put 40,000 enrollments upon its records within the last five years, while another school offering a general business course for executives has enrolled over 40,000 within approximately the same time. Even those schools which appeal to the narrower fields of highly specialized activities such as music, credits and collections and so on, show a wide influence. Over 260,000 persons have received instruction from one school teaching music by mail since its establishment twenty years ago, while the active list that follows the weekly lessons never falls below 10,000 students.

In the same length of time, a school of design and lettering has enrolled 9,455 students, and a correspondence collection school has enrolled 7,236 in about ten years. Even a highly specialized field, that of investments, has enabled one school to keep up an average

yearly enrollment of 120. A school offering general preparatory training in college and commercial subjects has a yearly enrollment which would do credit in point of size to the entering class of the average college. That the sphere of influence is not limited to any particular class of students is shown by the records of the two most prominent schools. The well known International Correspondence Schools, which make an appeal largely to students of apprentice grade, had enrolled a grand total of 1,750,441 up to June 1, 1915. In one year alone, there were as many as 125,000 new enrollments.

In some respects, however, the growth of the Alexander Hamilton Institute is still more significant in showing the range of influence which these schools are exercising. This institution, only a little more than five years old, has developed an entirely new field of correspondence instruction in its course and service for business executives. Within five years it has enrolled over 40,000 men whose average age is 32 years and whose average income is over \$2,700 a year.

#### INFLUENCE OF ADVERTISING AND SALESMANSHIP

One thing stands out preëminently in favor of the reputable correspondence school—the aggressive methods of pushing the cause of education as contrasted with the passive course of academic institutions. The former does not depend upon inherited, ancestral connections or "dignity" for its reputation, nor does it expect to win students solely by the advertising route of "our loving friends." The best correspondence schools use aggressive, business-like methods, and with the exception of a few important particulars they are straightforward in their advertising, and their salesmen are clean cut, intelligent men who would look upon an instructorship in a college as offering fewer opportunities for service than their contact outside with men of the world.

Added to sincerity of purpose and high ideals is the influence which goes with the extensive advertising and continuous efforts of thousands of sales agents. A few years ago the International Schools were spending \$2,000,000 annually in creating a demand for education. The total advertising appropriations today of the larger correspondence schools run between four and five million dollars per annum. Furthermore, if we take into consideration the selling expenses of one of these schools as well as the advertising appro-

priation, the influence is increased still more. For instance, one New York institution pays its salesmen an amount that closely approaches the total money income of the largest school of commerce in the world.

Contrast the influence of a university advertisement, which in one inch of space announces that it offers courses in certain academic subjects from September 15 to June 1, with that of a correspondence school which makes a full page display in the *Saturday Evening Post*, announcing "Muscles at twenty; brains at forty!" followed by testimonials of well known men, a list of subjects and a straightforward selling talk backed up with the names of the men behind the institution. Such an advertisement cost thousands of dollars to prepare and to distribute while the university announcement was prepared by a clerk in the registrar's office. Thousands read and answered the correspondence school advertisement and they were followed up, first by expensive, carefully prepared literature urging the claims of education, and secondly, by a visit from a personal representative of the school. The university announcement inspired a few dozen to write for a catalogue, and thanks to a predisposition engendered by twelve years or more of preparatory school work and the daily reading of the sporting page of the newspapers, a few of these were induced to go to college.

Although one school sends out over 30,000,000 pieces of printed matter per year, the influence produced by printer's ink is small compared to that exerted by the body of sales agents in the field. High grade correspondence schools are as careful in selecting their sales force as colleges and high schools are in choosing their faculties. The standards may be somewhat different but those of the former are in no way inferior to the latter. The salesmen's influence is two-fold. They not only spread a knowledge of certain subjects of study but they inspire thousands of men and women to undertake educational work. For instance, one school employs one hundred salesmen of whom the most are college trained and these are frequently welcomed in the offices of business men because of their wide grasp of the subjects that they are selling. Such salesmen present on an average five selling talks a day. This means that a total of about 150,000 prospects have one branch of education forced upon their attention every year by men who are able to convince them that education is worth while. By taking advantage of the prospect's

moment of strength and inspiration to train himself further, the salesman ties him by contract to a prescribed course of study for a period of a year or more.

Such is the influence and power for good where proper ideals and standards are lived up to. If all the money and sales energy were spent to develop a healthy discontent and to arouse a wholesome ambition there would be little criticism of correspondence school methods. But it is feared that much money and energy are expended only to arouse futile hopes and to inspire efforts doomed to end in disappointment.

#### VARIETIES OF CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS

Classified according to the nature of instruction offered, correspondence schools fall into three groups:

1. Schools offering general training in fundamental subjects such as the Home Correspondence School;
2. Schools offering specialized technical training, such as the Blackstone Institute for law, Pace and Pace for accounting and the American Collection Service;
3. Schools offering general commercial training, such as the AlexanderHamilton Institute, the American School of Correspondence and the LaSalle Institute.

It is not necessary to describe these classes further than indicated by reference to the few named above which illustrate each type.

Perhaps a more significant classification is one based on the character of the ownership and control. Here again we find three types as follows:

1. Public correspondence schools—those connected with universities (Wisconsin, Minnesota, Chicago);
2. Private—such as described above;
3. Quasi-public—such as the National Commercial Gas Association and the American Institute of Banking.

From a social and economic point of view the quasi-public corporation school is charged perhaps with greater possibilities than either or both of the others. Transportation systems, telephone and telegraph systems, insurance societies, public service corporations, such as gas and electric companies, are all showing tendencies toward a standardization of their courses of instruction whereby the whole industry may be benefited from the coöperative effort as well as from the effects of integration of sentiment and policy which common effort, following uniform instructions, always

induces. If space permitted, a study of the progress which the gas companies have made in correspondence courses conducted by the National Commercial Gas Association would be very instructive. Starting with a preliminary course which is devoted to the fundamentals of mathematics, science and English, but tied up with practical problems of the manufacture and distribution of gas and electricity, the course divides into five main branches corresponding to the chief commercial activities of gas companies. These are treated from the salesman's point of view and each covers a period of two years. The subjects are: (1) industrial power and fuel; (2) illumination; (3) salesmanship (general for the non-technical man); (4) commercial management; (5) accounting and office practice.

Over 8,000 men have enrolled in the various courses of this association during the past five years. The percentage of men completing a full course is unusually high—over 50 per cent. No attempt is made to secure profits; the sum charged for the courses is barely enough to cover the cost of production, distribution and service connected with the textbooks and the marking and criticizing of the papers which are sent into the central office from all over the United States and Canada.

#### WORK OF CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS

This falls into two divisions: (1) the tests or lessons which are supplemented in some cases by special lectures, "talks" and problems; and (2) the criticism or help given the student on his answers to problems, questions and quizzes. The most recent development, however, is the addition of a service or "encouragement" department. This is devoted to keeping the student interested in his work and encouraging those who have begun to lose enthusiasm or have met difficulties which ordinary criticism cannot remove.

The text and lesson material varies from school to school. The larger and more prominent ones put out texts of real educational merit. They differ from the regular school or college texts in that the diction is extremely simple, explanations are very elaborate and truisms are never omitted. The subjects are closely related to the realities of practical life and are kept up-to-date. For these reasons correspondence school texts are also popular with many prominent colleges and universities. Fifty-three American universities are

using one or more of the texts of a school giving general commercial instruction. At least six prominent colleges use the texts of a correspondence course in accounting, and over 400 trade schools and colleges use the books of the International Schools.

Keeping the courses and service up-to-date is a leading characteristic of private correspondence schools as a whole. One company spent over \$1,700,000 to bring their courses up to their present standard. Another company has revised its volumes and all its supplementary material six times in the five years of its existence at a cost varying from \$10,000 to \$30,000 each time.

#### THE SERVICE

It is more difficult to value the service of criticizing the student and keeping him enthusiastic, yet it is just this which differentiates a correspondence school from a mere book-selling concern. It is possible to put out good texts and yet have the educational results dependent on the service severely criticized. The chief complaints may be summed up as follows: (1) the work of marking papers is put into the hands of incompetent men; (2) explanations are not complete nor clear; (3) delays and neglect in returning answers destroy interest.

Here then are some of the pedagogical difficulties which confront correspondence schools. In order that the student may get a real training from the criticisms of his work, he must absorb from them, unconsciously perhaps, the knowledge or intuition of the proper approach to the solution of a problem; he must acquire a feeling for the use of analytical methods and a power to sense the strategical point of attack in the problems presented to him. To give this power to the student the critic himself must first possess the power. Such critics are rare and their services are well paid. Combined with this obstacle is the fact that the management of most correspondence schools is in the hands of men who are more concerned with selling the product than with the quality of the goods or the service. Since business does not depend much on the "return orders," there is great temptation for these men to push for new prospects and neglect the service which ties old customers to a firm. This tendency should be looked upon with great disfavor. There is hope, however, for the future, in the sense of saving or regaining the confidence of the public. One school shows a steady increase

in service expenditure over all the others. The department is made up almost entirely of college graduates who have had practical experience in the line of work that they attempt to criticize.

Poor service undoubtedly accounts for the small number of students who complete the courses. The problem is difficult for it must consider all sorts of men—the mature, those who never have acquired the knack or have lost it, "motor-minded" men to whom reflection is obnoxious, men who do not understand the hard grind necessary to acquire an education, men "who would like to swallow a pill and wake up to find that they were full of all the knowledge necessary to make a fortune," as one school executive puts it.

#### COMMERCIAL CHARACTER OF CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS IN RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL VALUE

Can an institution which is in the field for profit be relied upon to give proper attention to those phases of education which do not yield a profit in dollars and cents? It is difficult for most educators to see how money profits and a student's interests can be cared for at the same time. They fail to see that commercial and business relations are controlled by principles which protect the essential qualities of an educational product in the same manner that the goods of a manufacturer are kept up to standard.

Good business policy demands that the interests of the consumer stand first. In the case of the correspondence schools a violation of this principle has brought about more than one recent failure just as it did in the case of many large merchandizing establishments of recent memory. It is not a question of inherent differences between the commercial and educational elements in the composition of a correspondence school, but the universal problem which faces every enterprise—the problem of deciding between the long run and the short run policies of a business.

There is plenty of internal evidence both in the material of instruction and in the organization of the better schools to prove that the commercial character of the work does not necessarily interfere with a broad and liberal treatment of the subjects. It is true that the possibility of money-making attracts into the field some men with narrow vision and hence a narrow utilitarian view of the educational elements in his product.

However, one phase of correspondence school activities shows

a tardy development. This is an element which creeps into the advertising of even the best schools. An examination of the advertisements and circular letters reveals many objectionable features. They bristle with special scholarships, reduced prices for limited periods, free offers and the like. It is not that the schools play up their best and strongest features but the fact that they use the quack's methods of appealing to men's weaknesses rather than to their strength and that their innumerable special offers of scholarships, reduced prices, etc., are as a matter of fact practically perpetual in one form or another. "Let me congratulate you," writes one school in answer to my inquiry. "You have written us *just in time* to get our special reduced price offer." It appears that the author was particularly fortunate in selecting the time he did for this investigation for in nine cases out of ten, the school was always, for the time being, either making a special reduced rate or offering a limited number of scholarships. Underlying the special offers is always the bargain lure and while it is not a dignified thing to reduce any staple product to a bargain basis, the greatest injury comes from that destruction of confidence of the people in what the correspondence schools have to say for themselves.

A correspondence school need not be tied to an academic institution in order to be endowed with high ideals, pure motives and professional methods, but there is still a strong prejudice against these institutions which is based on the practices of the weak and fraudulent schools which deliberately cater to the delusions of the simple-minded and by misleading advertisements exploit the gullible public. However, this is not the only field where business men have been led astray by the lights of false advertising. The revolt against it is growing stronger every day. Correspondence schools like the common public schools will grow in number and influence as the demand, not only for popular education increases, but also for a continuous education which lasts far beyond the "school days" of the active man whether he be mechanic, professional or business man.

## **EDUCATION FOR ADULTS THROUGH PUBLIC LECTURES IN NEW YORK CITY**

**BY HENRY M. LEIPZIGER, LL.D.,**

**Supervisor of Lectures for the New York Board of Education.**

With the spread of democratic ideas throughout the world the belief in the necessity of the extension of popular education is becoming not alone deeper, but more general. Not only republican America, but monarchical Europe, recognizes the power of public opinion; and this deference to public opinion is the triumph of democracy. How important it is that public opinion should be sound and sane, and that the democracy that exercises this power should wield it in obedience to lofty and pure motives! Hardly more than a century ago education was considered the privilege of the few. How marvelous the development during the past thirty years—the rise and spread of the kindergarten, the increase in the number of secondary schools, the increase in the institutions for the liberal education of women, the state college and university, the spread of the free library, the museum of art and science, all having as their purpose—what? The emancipation of the individual man and the individual woman.

### **THE WIDER USE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS, GROUNDS AND EQUIPMENT**

In our great cities the extension of the public schools has been evidenced by the addition of the evening schools, both elementary and high, the use of the school houses during the summer for what is known as vacation schools, and the opening of school houses during the evenings throughout the entire year for the purposes of recreation and refined play. Thus the school is becoming not only a place of instruction, but a place of general culture. It becomes, as it should be, a social centre. The extension of the use of the school in the ways I have mentioned provides for those above the school age, and their popular reception is an indication of the wisdom of their adoption.

## THE FREE LECTURE SYSTEM IN NEW YORK

The free lecture movement is a provision for adult education that now forms an integral part of the educational system of New York City, and has won its way from small beginnings until it is now regarded by the taxpayer both as a necessity and as one of the most judicious of civic investments. Its success has been genuine, its growth steady. A similar system is possible in each city of the land, so that the lecture system of New York may seem to exemplify the true field of public school extension. *Its underlying principle is that education shall be unending*, that the work of instruction and education begun in the elementary school must be continued and completed. Our country's prosperity and progress depend on the intelligence of its citizens; and, as we have come to realize that the child is of supreme importance, so have we also arrived slowly at the conclusion that he who from necessity has remained in many respects a child in education needs also, and in many instances actually craves, the additional knowledge and education that the "free lectures" attempt to give.

Of the school population of our land but a small percentage attend the high schools and colleges, universities and professional schools. The great body of our citizens has but limited education and the very persons best fitted to profit by education and who need it most are denied its beneficent influence. Those most in need of it are between 14 and 20 years, the time of adolescence, when conscience is disturbed and character is being formed. At that time all the safeguards of true culture must be put around youth.

Then there is a large and growing class of mature people who have a knowledge of practical life and who appreciate the needs of more education most keenly and who long to fill up the gaps in their lives. It is from such a class that the best audiences are gathered. A lecturer on physics testified that "the questions put by hearers were as a rule more intelligent than are asked inside of many a college."

That there is a large body of men and women who believe that they are not too old to learn is proven by the figures of constantly increasing attendance. They come to these lectures not in obedience to the compulsory education act; they do not come "creeping like snail unwillingly to school" but they realize by their

presence the original idea of the school which is a place of recreation and leisure, for the word "school" is from the Greek "Scola" meaning leisure. The people are awakening to the fact that education is a continuous performance; that the school gives the alphabet but that the word must be formed during life. It is a movement to give men and women whose lives are the lives of monotonous labor a wider outlook and in the most interesting form to bring them into touch with the principles of science and its recent discoveries; with the results of travel; with the teachings of political science and economics; with the lessons of history and the delights afforded by music, literature and art.

#### MARVELOUS GROWTH IN ATTENDANCE

The free lecture movement was begun in New York in six school houses in the year 1888. It began as a result of the passage by the legislature of the State of New York of an act providing that

The Board of Education is authorized and empowered to provide for the employment of competent lecturers to deliver lectures on the natural sciences and kindred subjects in the public schools of said city in the evenings for the benefit of working men and working women.

The attendance during the first year was about 22,100. This modest beginning was an epochal event, for prior to this time the use of the schools for any purpose other than the usual routine of the elementary day school was undreamed of as the school house was constructed solely for its use by children. Its furniture and equipment were for children only and the school house plant was practically used only five days in the week, five hours each day, for forty weeks in the year. During the year 1915 lectures were given in 176 places to 5,515 audiences with an aggregate attendance of 1,295,907, reaching the population of all the boroughs that compose the City of New York. The attendance was almost entirely of adults, and that fact is one of the most gratifying features of this great lecture system. A well-known journalist wrote to the writer of this article:

The education which a developed man gets and really wants he really uses. If you can get the fathers and mothers of children interested in knowledge they will see to it that their children take an interest. They will inspire their children as a school-teacher cannot do.

## THE QUEST FOR DEMOCRATIC CULTURE

And therefore it can be said that the statement of President Eliot that "the fundamental object of democratic education is to lift the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, right conduct and happiness" is exemplified today by the public lectures in New York which have come to be regarded by many as a "University for the People." It is really a university, although it has no great university buildings, but it has all the elements of the real university that has earnest teachers and willing students. The Superintendent of the Newark Schools, referring to the public lectures, said:

In scarcely another place, except it be the polling place, can men of all classes meet on a common basis of citizenship, and even at the polls men are usually divided into hostile camps. Anything that draws men together on a common footing of rights, powers, duties and enjoyments is a great social and moral power for good citizenship. *Next to the public school which tends to obliterate hereditary and acquired social and class distinctions, the public lecture held in the public school house and paid for out of the public purse is the most thoroughly democratic of our public institutions.*

The character of the lectures and the discrimination of the audiences indicate the serious-minded nature of the men and women who come to the school house. The subjects include all the great themes that are included in the realm of knowledge,—science, art, civics, literature, history and music. Many lectures are given in courses of thirty. Examinations are held, a syllabus is distributed in connection with each course.

Coöperation with the Department of Health is brought about by lectures on sanitation and hygiene. Coöperation with the great museums of art make known to the public the treasures. The development of citizenship has been fostered by the scholarly treatment of the great epochs in our national history. Music, painting and other forms of art have been presented to the people. The purpose is to add to the joy and value of human life by diffusing among the mass of our citizens what someone has well called "race knowledge."

## THE CHARACTER AND SCOPE OF LECTURES

There are two classes of lectures, one where subjects that appeal to large audiences can be treated, and the other more special in nature, for those who are interested only in a partic-

ular subject. The entire winter is devoted to but one or two subjects, and a definite course of reading and study accompany the course.

The lectures are illustrated largely by the stereopticon, for as President Eliot has said, "Even Latin and Greek cannot be well taught without the lantern as a means of illustration," and the motion picture forms an additional feature, where advisable. The scientific lectures are accompanied by adequate experiments and the interest in scientific subjects can be shown by the fact that a course of eight lectures on "Heat as a Mode of Motion" in the Great Hall of Cooper Institute attracted an average attendance of about 1,000 at each lecture. The lecture was followed by a class quiz which lasted about an hour and the course was accompanied by a reading of Tyndall's "Heat as a Mode of Motion" as a textbook.

The character of the reading in the public library has much improved as a result of the inquiry for the best books by those who attend the lectures. The continuity of attendance at the lectures in courses is one of the most gratifying signs of the influence of the lecture system and the desire of the people for *systematic instruction*.

#### PRESIDENT WILSON IN COOPER UNION

The character of the questions put at some of the lectures one can judge from the words of President Wilson in his book "The New Freedom," in which he said:

One of the valuable lessons of my life was due to the fact that at a comparatively early age in my experience I had the privilege of speaking in Cooper Union, New York, and I want to tell you this, that in the questions that were asked there after the speech was over some of the most penetrating questions that I have ever had addressed to me came from some of the men in the audience who were the least well-dressed, came from the plain fellows, came from the fellows whose muscle was daily up against the whole struggle of life. They asked questions which went to the heart of the business and put me to my mettle to answer them. I felt as if those questions came as a voice out of life itself, not a voice out of any school less severe than the severe school of experience.

At some of these discussions in a hall like Cooper Union as many as a thousand persons remain an hour after the lecture to listen and benefit by the open discussion. Discussions of this type have led to the establishment in connection with the lectures of forums where current questions of vital importance are discussed. This use

of the school as a "People's Forum" will, if definitely followed, transform the character of our political meetings; for where better than in the school house shall the people come to reason together? The main questions that are the subject of our political controversies are at bottom educational, and for this reason it is the policy now to educate the people in time of quiet and when reason controls and not confine the campaign of education on economic and political questions to the period immediately prior to an election. It is a perfectly logical step from these weekly discussions on subjects relating to government, given in many cases by city or state officials, to neighborhood meetings to consider local, state and national affairs, and then to have political meetings in these school houses.

The audiences not alone participate in the discussion but participate in suggesting the type of lecture that is desired in any particular neighborhood. In this way a community feeling is developed and men get to know men. As each different locality has some predominating characteristic either in population or in vocation, the special needs of the locality are considered and the lecture meetings become one of the most important socializing influences in a great city and a great counteracting influence to the loneliness which is so apt to prevail. Family life is developed through attendance at the lectures and interest is awakened in thousands who otherwise would lead dull and monotonous lives.

#### A WIDE RANGE OF SUBJECTS

While practical subjects such as first aid to the injured and hygiene are dwelt upon yet great attention is paid to subjects such as poetry and music, for someone has well said, that if sentiment is eliminated from business transactions, it is of all the more importance that it be added to recreation and leisure. The world never needed poetry so much as now. Charles Eliot Norton once said: "Whatever your occupation may be, and however crowded your hours with other affairs, do not fail to secure a few moments every day for the refreshment of your inner life with a bit of poetry."

One of the most important portions of the population reached by the public lecture system is the Italian and Yiddish immigrant classes who are appealed to by lectures in their own tongues on subjects arranged to prepare them for American life. As an example the titles of a course are given: "We and Our Children,"

"Juvenile Delinquency—Its Prevention," "Vocational Training," "Household Economy," "Citizenship," etc.

#### THE NEW TYPE OF SCHOOL HOUSE

The movement for adult education not alone gives a new interpretation to education but calls into being a new type of school house, a school house which is to be adapted not alone to the instruction of children but for the education of men and women, so that there should be in each modern school house a proper auditorium with seats for adults and equipped with apparatus for scientific lectures and with the proper means for illustration. The new school houses built in our city contain such auditoriums and they become social centers, real, genuine, democratic neighborhood houses. Some of these school houses are open on Sunday; if the museum and the library are open on Sunday why should not the school house also be open on Sunday afternoon and in its main hall the people be gathered Sunday afternoon or evening to listen to an uplifting address of a biographical, sociological or ethical character, or to listen to a recital of noble music on the school organ. There are five such organ recitals now being conducted on Sundays in the New York schools.

#### THE WIDENING OF UNIVERSITY INFLUENCE

Education for adults has brought about the widening of the influence of the university. Of all the classes in a community the most patriotic should be those who have had the benefit of a higher education. Professor Woodbridge says:

To many it appears that the university is an institution primarily engaged in conferring degrees rather than in the great and important business of public instruction; but public instruction is the university's great and important business. Current events perilously invite the university to enter upon its larger opportunity. Amid the wreck of so much civilization, it stands challenged as the one human institution whose professed aim is the substitution of the empire of man over nature through morality and intelligence for the empire of man over man, through politics and force. Especially in a democracy the university should be the source where public opinion is constantly renewed and refreshed, for it is the best means yet devised for the attainment of democracy and civilization. Surely it is not the ideal dream of the visionary, it is not the faint hope of the philosopher, it is the stern truth of history that only the school can save the state!

The university in a great city should be one of the most powerful public service corporations within the state. One of the most distinguished professors in one of our leading universities recently wrote concerning his experience:

It is a genuine pleasure to lecture to New York audiences. I am quite sincere in saying that I lecture to none better or more responsive. Among the impressions that I have had from New York audiences are these: That nothing is too abstract or profound to present to them if it is presented in a fairly attractive and altogether human fashion; that no audiences, university or otherwise, are more accessible to ideas; that discussions need never be run into dogma or partisanship, if the lecturer will take the frank attitude that the lectures are educational, deal with principles, and are not concerned with political controversies. Finally, my faith in democracy has been strengthened and increased by these experiences. We need have no misgivings about the power of the people to think straight when we see these New York audiences.

These words from the professor express the true purpose of the teacher in a scheme for adult education whose purpose is the creation of sound public opinion upon which the future of our democracy rests.

Adult education as interpreted by the public lecture system has broadened the meaning of the term education and formed a continuation school in the best sense. It reaches all classes of society for the audiences are truly democratic. It brings culture in touch with the uncultured, adds to the stock of information of the people and nourishes their ideals. In these days of shorter hours and greater leisure, the toilers will find in adult education the stimulus for the gratification of their intellectual desires, and a larger world is given them in which to live. Their daily labor will be dignified, new joy will come into their lives through association with science, literature and art, and they will discover that true happiness does not come from wealth but from sympathy with the best things in art, science and nature.

## THE SPREAD OF THE COMMUNITY MUSIC IDEA

BY PETER W. DYKEMA, M.LITT.,

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The National Conference of Community Centers and Related Problems held in New York City in April, 1916, prefaced its call to the workers in the various parts of the United States by the following quotation from John Dewey, professor of philosophy at Columbia University, which may well serve as the motto or underlying idea of the movement for community music in this country: "The furtherance of the depth and width of human intercourse is the measure of civilization. Freedom and fullness of human companionship is the aim, and intelligent coöperative experimentation, the method."

### COMMUNITY MUSIC DEFINED

Community music is a term that has obtained great vogue the past three years and yet so far as I know it has never been defined. It may be worth while, however, for the sake of definiteness in this paper and the discussion which may ensue, to indicate one conception of a proper definition. First of all, it may be said that community music is not the name of a new type of music nor even of musical endeavor. It does not include any particular kind of music or any particular kind of performer. It is not so much the designation of a new thing as a new point of view. It may employ any of the older and well tried manifestations of music and musical endeavor, and by means of the new spirit transform them to suit its own purposes. Stated positively and concretely, community music is socialized music; music, to use Lincoln's phrase, for the people, of the people, and by the people. Let us look for a moment at each of these three aspects.

#### (1) MUSIC FOR THE PEOPLE

That "man shall not live by bread alone" is a statement which implies that while it is entirely proper that man's physical needs be taken care of, his life is incomplete, his development stunted, if

only these needs be provided. The movement for community art in its various manifestations is one of the responses which America is making to this hoary dictum. Never before have there been such widespread efforts to give everybody the opportunity of hearing an abundance of music. Free concerts by bands and orchestras during the summer season; free or lowpriced concerts by bands and orchestras, popular priced opera, free organ recitals during the winter; lectures on music with copious illustrations, concerts by school organizations, open demonstrations of the wonderful possibilities of mechanical music producers; the use of these same instruments in countless homes—these are all indications of the tremendous development of opportunities for even the lowliest to hear all the music he desires. Many of these developments are purely private financial schemes for increasing revenues by obtaining a small profit from a very large number of auditors. A surprisingly large number, however, are either the activities of groups of public-spirited citizens who furnish the entertainments, at their own expense or at cost prices, or the direct undertaking of the municipality itself. From coast to coast, there is a chain of civic music associations, municipal orchestras, choruses, and organs. In Portland, Maine; New York City; Tiffin, Ohio; Richmond, Indiana; Winona, Minnesota, and in many other places, out to Oakland, California, are found the outposts of what promises to be a large army of municipally employed musicians. Starting with Evanston, Illinois, and working east and west has gone the movement for the establishment, in connection with the public libraries, of a collection of records for piano-player and phonograph which may be borrowed and taken home as though they were books—as, indeed, they are to many whose ears must be their eyes. A number of normal schools and universities in the middle west are using the plan which has been so excellently developed at Emporia, Kansas, of sending upon call, even into the remotest communities, records with accompanying lectures or explanations and in some cases with a phonograph or even with lantern slides. Five of these universities have gone rather extensively into the business of furnishing, at the lowest possible prices to the communities of their states, high class musical entertainments. By this means small communities that heretofore have heard only mediocre musical entertainments now are able to hear excellent soloists and good ensemble work. The height of the latter type

was reached when one town in Wisconsin with a population of 600 people, located twelve miles from a railroad, was able to become part of a circuit formed by the university for a series of concerts by seventeen of the best men from the Chicago Symphony Orchestra.

And not only is the quantity of music to be heard increasing; there has also been a steady gain in the quality. The experiences of New York under the guidance of Arthur Farwell, director of community music, are typical. Band and orchestra leaders in their popular concerts need only guidance and encouragement to strengthen their desires to play the best, and tact and patience to lead their audiences to prefer the best.

#### (2) MUSIC OF THE PEOPLE

But these concerts are not to be given entirely by professional musicians. The people themselves are entering into the production of music in entertainments. Lindsborg, Kansas, with its annual production of the Messiah; Bethlehem with its restored Bach chorus; New York, Boston, Cincinnati, and scores of other places with their established and historical choruses; Worcester, Massachusetts, Ithaca, New York, Ann Arbor, Michigan, Evanston, Illinois, and other centers with their great three-day, or more, spring festivals—these down to the thousands of towns which support, albeit sometimes rather precariously, choral organizations, bands, or orchestras, are typical of the demand that there be a place for the amateur producer of music. It is a far cry from the tremendous chorus that New York gets together for its open-air festival society down to the village choral union of twenty-five voices, struggling to round into shape for its initial performance a presentation of the "Rose-maiden." But in each case the same impulse is present, namely, the desire of the men and the women to use music as an expression of the emotions and the sense of beauty.

One of the most remarkable phases of this aspect of music is the developments that have gone on in industrial establishments. One of the first manifestations of the so-called welfare work of the great business houses is invariably some musical endeavor. In Chicago, for example, Marshall Field and Company have a large choral society; the Commonwealth Edison Company a choral society and an orchestra; the International Harvester Company a choral society and a band; the Bell Telephone Company an orches-

tra, a band, and a glee club. In many parts of the country a number of newspapers have bands or glee clubs. Associations of commerce, rotary clubs, university clubs in the large cities, in fact the most diverse organizations seem to be able to unite in their love for the study and production of music. Movements like the People's Singing Classes of New York and extension divisions of some of the universities devote their energies to the formation of choral organizations for the definite acquirement of a certain minimum of musical knowledge, the study of some of the larger choral works, and the presentation of those in a rather formal way. It is certain that an organization such as the Civic Music Association of Chicago, which began its work by giving at low prices concerts by professional musicians who largely volunteered their services, has found that an increasing proportion of its work is being devoted to the forwarding of choruses. At its June, 1916, spring festival, there were included works by eleven choruses, six of them being children's groups, the others being adults, one of the most interesting being the Volkslieder Verein, a group of women under the leadership of Mari Ruef Hofer, most of whom are housewives or scrubwomen. Likewise in Pittsburgh, one of the noteworthy contributions which Mr. Will Earhart has made to the music of that city has been the development of a number of robust evening choruses and orchestras of adults. As the democratic movement in our country slowly elevates the standard of every individual, it is inevitable, if our growth is steady and sane, that the people should more and more desire to enter into a serious study of music, the most companionable of the arts.

### (3) MUSIC BY THE PEOPLE

In this phrase, "the most companionable of the arts," lies the secret of that phase of the development of community music which has attracted most attention and which probably is most characteristic of the democratic movement, namely, informal or community singing. In this type of music the social element becomes so strong that in selecting a leader for this work it is difficult to know which is the more important attribute, the knowledge of music or the knowledge of people. If the community music movement has developed a new form, it is in connection with this phase of the work. Singing by great groups of people has occurred again and

again. The revivalist, the militarist, and the politician, have used it on special occasions, but never yet has it been capitalized as a permanent social force. The community Christmas tree with its attempts at general singing has each year started into vibration a great wave of love, brotherliness, and community consciousness. But in the year that intervenes before it is reinforced, these waves have lost their force. The community music movement proposes to keep these vibrating and to add to them the reinforcement of many other musical attributes. This is not a movement primarily for the study of music, or the mastering of technique; it is rather the using of that natural love and command of music which everyone possesses and which, when rendered collectively by a large group, is surprisingly efficient, even with comparatively difficult music. The National Conference of Music Supervisors at its meeting in Rochester in 1913 agreed upon a list of eighteen songs which were to be used for community singing and which, in preparation for later adult use, were to be taught to the children of the country. This material, all of the simple folk-song type, has been sung by thousands of people under hundreds of directors and, from these four years' experience, one lesson has already emerged, namely, the group can do things which are impossible for the individual. Mr. Harry H. Barnhart has demonstrated, with his so-called community choruses in Rochester and New York City, that, with an inspiring conductor and proper accompaniment, a great group of people can easily pass beyond such songs as "Old Folks at Home"; "Love's Old Sweet Song"; "Sweet and Low"; "How Can I Leave Thee," simple three-part rounds, and like material which makes up the original collection of eighteen songs, and can give with little or no rehearsal great sweeping renderings of such great compositions as the "Pilgrims' Chorus" from Tannhauser; "Soldiers' Chorus" from Faust; and Beethoven's "The Heavens Resound." In the new list which the music supervisors are about to publish, the number of songs will be extended to fifty which will include the larger portion of the simpler folk songs of the original eighteen and many others of the same type. But there will also be included some of the massive material for great groups with large accompaniment such as that just mentioned. Another interesting aspect of this community singing idea has been developed in Chicago, that city of many nationalities, in a program called the "melting pot of music."

Here were gathered groups of Swedish and Norwegian singers, united Bohemian singing societies, German liederchöre, and Polish singing groups. Each group in turn sang songs of its own nationality and then from the music thrown upon the screen, one song of each nation was sung in English translation by the entire audience. Finally, all the elements joined in the singing of a number of American patriotic and folk songs.

The results of these great community sings are already having their effect on external conditions. In Rochester, the Park Department, under the guidance of an enthusiastic architect, went to considerable expense and an endless amount of pains to prepare an out-of-door auditorium for a great community chorus. In Central Park, New York City, preparations are made to receive the 10,000 participants in the Sunday afternoon sings. At the other end of the scale in population, but more permanent in form, Anoka, Minnesota, a town of 8,000, has built a concrete stadium with a capacity of almost 2,000. As a direct result of those community singing gatherings, in a large number of places, the school architect is making such a procedure unnecessary for the greater part of the year by providing suitable auditoriums in the school building. Undoubtedly, however, Anoka's stadium, the great pageant grounds at St. Louis and Philadelphia, the Greek theatres, all possess possibilities through their being in the open air, which are closed to the indoor auditorium.

#### THE HEART OF IT

The community music movement is measuring all musical endeavors by the standard of usefulness for the great social body. It is increasing the number of concerts and bettering their quality. It is stressing the necessity of serious choral study and enlarging the membership of choral organizations. And finally, it is giving the opportunity to every man and woman for free and frequent participation in music, especially in choral singing with great groups of people. It is insisting that, while man must be fed, clothed and housed, while his body must be properly cared for, these measures alone will make but well groomed animals. It maintains that man's glory lies in his intellectual and spiritual attributes and that music aids in satisfying these longings which make life here worth while, and points the way to those aspirations which make a life beyond possible.

## EDUCATION THROUGH FARM DEMONSTRATION

BY BRADFORD KNAPP,

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During the past twelve years a new and distinct type of agricultural education has been established in America. This new and practical plan of disseminating information may now be regarded as a part of the educational system of the country. It introduces a method by which those who do not attend schools are able to learn while they still pursue the busy work of their every-day struggle for a living. So far as agriculture and the rural problem are concerned, this system of education has given a new meaning to the phrase, "Knowledge and the means of education shall be forever free." It is rapidly giving to all rural people an equal opportunity to acquire useful knowledge without needless sacrifice of time. While the public school system brought some training in primary branches of learning within reach of the masses, it required the pupil to seek the education and confined its effort mainly to the youth of the land. Schools, colleges and universities necessarily withdraw the student from active life and from gainful occupations. Educational facilities supplied by these necessary and useful parts of our system are still found mainly within the walls of the institution. Above the primary grades education has been, after all, a thing for the few rather than for the masses.

Systematic teaching by demonstrations or object lessons in the field is a distinct addition to the American system of agricultural education. It does not take the place of nor does it interfere with any part of the present system. It is the addition of a new part. One of the recognized problems in agriculture is the dissemination of information. For years it has been recognized that farm practices in general have been much below those of the best farmers. The knowledge gained by the experiment stations and other public institutions established for the purpose of acquiring information has not been taken from the bulletins and put into universal practice. This is clearly recognized in the act establishing this new system of education when it says,—

That in order to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same, . . . .

It is the purpose of this article to trace briefly the origin and history of the development of this system with special reference to the most important part of it, namely, the demonstration system of teaching through county agents, both men and women.

The first movement toward education outside of schools, so far as agriculture is concerned, was doubtless the institute. The early form of the institute was the neighborhood meeting. Then came the organized effort to instruct through the spoken word. These forms of instruction have been improved and developed and are still important parts of the complete system.

The publication of text books, bulletins and circulars from both public and private sources has played an important part in agricultural education. These are the records from which the material for instruction is obtained. The agricultural press has always been an important factor in the dissemination of agricultural information. The more the new system is developed, the more help will farmers derive from bulletins, the agricultural press and other publications.

#### THE DEMONSTRATION IDEA

Teaching by object lessons is not a new method. Laboratories and shops in our great institutions of learning testify to the educational importance of practical knowledge and the necessity of hand training and experience. In the agricultural world teaching through demonstrations has been of two kinds which should be carefully distinguished.

Long before the present system was evolved, not only the department at Washington, but many institutions and public or semi-public organizations had tried what may be called the "model farm" type of demonstration as a means of disseminating information about farming. In this plan the demonstration is a public one and the farm or demonstration is supported entirely from public funds or from funds of the organization desiring to teach the lesson. The result is that the teacher does all of the work and sets the result of his effort before the people to be copied. This plan did a great deal of good but it still required the farmer to come and view the demonstration, and it lacked the two important elements of having the

farmer do the work himself, and of adjusting the lesson to ordinary farm conditions and the means of the average farmer. A very small proportion of the farmers would go to see the model farm or demonstration, and few of those who did adopted the methods shown. No one was present on the average farm to assist the farmer in applying the method to his conditions. The mere illustration of a lecture by the instructor performing some act to show how a thing is to be done is often called a demonstration, but should not be confused in principle and effect with the demonstrations here described.

The most important part of the present system consists of demonstrations conducted on farms in the course of which the farmer does all the work and furnishes land, tools and equipment, while the instructor visits the farms regularly and assists in adapting the principles to local conditions. The result is an object lesson within reach of the farmer. Such a demonstration not only puts the lesson into actual practice, but also materially assists in fostering friendly relations of confidence and respect between the instructor and the one receiving the lesson.

#### ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF SYSTEM

In 1903-04 Congress made an appropriation authorizing work to counteract the ravages of the Mexican cotton boll weevil in Texas and other cotton states. This insect pest was laying waste the cotton fields of the southwest, leaving abandoned farms and business failures in its wake. A small portion of the funds so appropriated was devoted to a work conducted by the late Dr. Seaman A. Knapp to enable him to try out his method of teaching by conducting a large number of demonstrations on farms as described above. Dr. Knapp was then seventy years of age. He had been a stock farmer in Iowa in the '70's, and afterwards Professor of Agriculture and President of the Iowa Agricultural College. He had come to the South in 1885 and had devoted a great deal of his time to the development of the rice industry in Louisiana. In that work and in some of his work in Iowa he had used simple, direct methods of reaching farmers through practical field examples and, out of that experience, had suggested that he be permitted to try his plan of teaching farmers through demonstrations conducted on their own farms.

The work was actually begun in January, 1904. The main features consisted of personal visits of the department's representatives to a large number of farms scattered over the country then seriously affected. Demonstrations were carried on by these farmers under the careful instruction of these representatives. At first the work was devoted mainly to improving the cultural methods of raising cotton in order to minimize the damage from the weevil. However, it was soon seen that the difficulty could be met only by a general campaign of the same character for the purpose of bringing about a diversification of crops and better agricultural practices. The purpose was to bring about such a change that the farmer would not be dependent entirely upon cotton for both income and maintenance. Therefore, demonstrations in corn and many other crops were instituted in the same way.

The work was almost an immediate success. Thousands of examples or "demonstrations" were created by farmers through the instructions of the department's agents under Dr. Knapp's leadership. Meetings were held at the demonstrations and experiences compared at the end of the season. During the first year or two the work covered a great deal of territory. The demonstrations were scattered along railroads and main highways where they could be easily reached and seen. One agent was compelled to cover considerable territory. However, the effect was to restore confidence, and to give the people hope and something to live on while they readjusted their agriculture to meet the new conditions. Gradually the farmers began to understand that they could raise cotton in spite of the weevil, and the full restoration of prosperity was only a matter of time and the extension of the new type of education.

The General Education Board of New York was, at that time, engaged in an earnest effort to assist southern education, not only in colleges, but in secondary schools, and even the primary rural schools. Their attention had been called to the rural problem and to the rural schools and the general educational needs of the country. While studying the situation with a view to greater assistance, they came in contact with the work of the department under Dr. Knapp. Their representatives visited Texas, met Dr. Knapp and studied his work. They were interested and impressed with Dr. Knapp's statement that in meeting an emergency he had found an

opportunity to put into practice an idea he had worked out which he believed to be of universal application. They, therefore, offered to furnish the necessary funds to permit Dr. Knapp to try his plan in sections of the South far removed from the influence of the boll weevil, if arrangements could be made with the department of agriculture for the trial. As a result of their effort the offer was accepted and Dr. Knapp was furnished with funds from the General Education Board in addition to the funds from Congress. With the federal funds work was done in boll weevil territory and the territory immediately in advance of the weevil, which was gradually migrating from year to year north and east through the cotton states. With the funds of the General Education Board work of the same kind for the general improvement of agriculture and rural economic conditions was begun in Mississippi and Virginia in 1906, and was extended to Alabama, South Carolina, Georgia and North Carolina in 1907. The direct federal funds carried the work in Texas, Louisiana, Oklahoma and Arkansas. As the weevil advanced eastward, the states were transferred in succession from the General Education Board fund to the federal fund. The funds from both of these sources increased from year to year as the work grew in popularity. In 1909 the federal funds amounted to \$102,000 and those from the General Education Board to \$76,500.

In 1906 and 1907 such was the demand for the work that it was impossible to reach all who were insisting that they needed the help. When advised that financial assistance was the limiting factor in spreading the work, business men in some of the counties offered to assist in the payment of the salary of an agent if his activities could be restricted to their county. This was done. It had been fully realized by Dr. Knapp that the work would be improved by limiting the territory served by each agent. This led to the adoption of the title, "County Agent" afterward so well known in the South.

#### RECOGNITION BY STATES

In 1909 the state of Mississippi took the lead in recognizing the new type of education by enacting a law under which the county might pay part of the salary of the agent. In the years from 1909 to 1915, every southern state having power to grant such authority to the county passed some sort of law permitting the county government to coöperate with the United States Department of Agri-

culture in this work and to pay part or all the salary of the county agent. State appropriations were made also in a number of cases, the first in 1911 in Alabama.

The growth of the work was phenomenal. It soon became the rule rather than the exception for the county to furnish at least one-half of the money necessary for the salary and expenses of the county agent. Of late years the financial coöperation from local sources has practically doubled the service and met the appropriations dollar for dollar or more. During the early days of the development of the work men often served for the love of the service, and hence the rule was rather low salaries considering the service rendered. The work was always practical and direct. As it grew and developed and the men became more expert, the whole system gradually took form and certain well recognized methods were followed.

#### THE COUNTY AGENT'S WORK

What does a county agent do and how does he teach by demonstrations? The county agent goes to the farm and gives his instruction while the farmer is at his everyday duties. The aim of the work was and is to place in every community practical object lessons illustrating the best and most profitable method of producing the standard farm crops, or of animal feeding, etc., and to secure such active participation in the demonstration on the part of the farmers as to prove that they can make a much larger average annual crop, or feed or produce livestock more economically, and secure a greater return for their toil. Dr. Knapp said that it might be regarded as a "system of adult education given to the farmer upon his farm by object lessons in the soil, prepared under his observation and generally by his own hand."

The teaching was very effective because at first it was simple in character, direct, and limited to a few fundamental things, such as the preparation of a good seed bed, deep fall plowing, the selection of good seed, and shallow and intensive cultivation. In the early stages of the work Dr. Knapp framed what he called the "Ten Commandments of Agriculture," as follows:

1. Prepare a deep and thoroughly pulverized seed bed, well drained; break in the fall to a depth of 8, 10 or 12 inches, according to the soil; with implements that will not bring too much of the sub-soil to the surface; (the foregoing depths should be reached gradually).

2. Use seed of the best variety, intelligently selected and carefully stored.
3. In cultivated crops, give rows and the plants in the rows a space suited to the plant, the soil and the climate.
4. Use intensive tillage during the growing period of the crop.
5. Secure a high content of humus in the soil by the use of legumes, barnyard manure, farm refuse and commercial fertilizers.
6. Carry out a system of crop rotation with a winter cover crop on southern farms.
7. Accomplish more work in a day by using more horse power and better implements.
8. Increase the farm stock to the extent of utilizing all the waste products and idle lands on the farm.
9. Produce all the food required for the men and animals on the farm.
10. Keep an account of each farm product in order to know from which the gain or loss arises.

These became very widely known in the South and formed the basis for much of the work done by the agents.

The demonstrations were extended from crop to crop. With the fundamental idea that it was necessary to readjust the agriculture of the South and make it more profitable and to make the country life better, Dr. Knapp taught the great lesson of diversification or a self-sustaining agriculture. The preservation of the fertility of the soil and the furnishing of the living of the people on the farm from its products, were two necessary changes if the South was to prosper. With these things taken care of, that great section was well supplied with cash crops which it could produce and exchange in the markets of the world for the money with which to improve her life and her industries. The trouble was that the South was producing these splendid crops of cotton, tobacco, rice and sugar and exchanging them for her living.

#### REACHING MORE PEOPLE

One of the problems was to reach as many farmers as possible. The county agent could not possibly carry on a demonstration on every farm in the county. Two plans proved effective. The first was to rely upon the fact that farmers, like other people, would imitate what they saw tried with success. It became very evident that one good demonstration in a neighborhood reached more people than the farmer who carried on the demonstration. A varying

number of the neighbors copied the practices and profited by the lesson because it was simple, and close by where they could see it. But some effort was also made to assist this process. Farmers around the demonstration were notified of the agent's visit and invited to come to the demonstration farm for a conference. These informal meetings were called field meetings or field schools. Neighboring farmers who were sufficiently interested agreed to carry on a demonstration on their own farms and to obtain their instruction from meeting the agent at the demonstration farms. These men who were not visited were called "coöoperators." Out of these meetings grew neighborhood organizations of farmers or community clubs which now form an important part of the work.

#### BOYS' CLUBS

About 1908 Dr. Knapp first began what was known as the Boys' Corn Club Movement in the South. It is true that there had been corn clubs in a number of the northern states and in one or two of the southern states prior to that time. However, Dr. Knapp should receive the credit for systematizing this very important and excellent piece of work. He established it on an acre contest basis and arranged for the giving of prizes, not on the maximum yield alone, but upon the maximum yield at minimum cost, with a written essay describing the work done and an exhibit of the product. The objects of the Boys' Corn Club Work were:

1. To afford the rural teacher a simple and easy method of teaching practical agriculture in the schools in the way it must be acquired to be of any real service; namely, by actual work upon the farm.
2. To prove that there is more in the soil than the farmer has ever gotten out of it. To inspire boys with a love of the land by showing them how they can get wealth out of it by tilling it in a better way, and thus to be helpful to the family and the neighborhood, and
3. To give the boys a definite, worthy purpose and to stimulate a friendly rivalry among them.

The first effort in this direction was in Mississippi when Mr. W. H. Smith, then County Superintendent of Schools for Holmes County, did the work in coöperation with the demonstration forces. Results of this work were extended gradually to the other states until the Boys' Corn Club Movement as a part of the general scheme

of education through demonstration became a very large factor in southern agricultural work.

The Boys' Club Work was organized mainly through the schools. The county agent was recognized as the agricultural authority and gave the boys instruction. The school teachers generally acted as the organizers of the clubs. The county superintendent was a good coöoperator. The state superintendent often assisted materially with the work. Prizes were contributed by local business men; the bankers became interested and often gave considerable money for prizes for these contests. The local contest and the county and state contest soon became very important and interesting events. In 1909 four state prize winners received free trips to Washington, D. C. For a number of years these annual trips attracted much attention. This plan was abandoned in 1914 for the better system of scholarship prizes. Since then the chief annual prize in the state has been a scholarship at the Agricultural College. Pig Clubs, Baby Beef Clubs, Clover Clubs, etc., are but a natural evolution which came with the years.

In 1911 the number of county agents had reached 583, the number of demonstrators and coöoperators had reached 100,000, and the number of boys approximately 51,000.

#### GIRLS' CLUBS

In 1910 Dr. S. A. Knapp began to develop a part of the work for women and girls. It was his belief that he had thus far planned the work for the father and son. He desired to complete the work by doing something for the mother and daughter. In October, 1910, he wrote:

*The Demonstration Work has proven that it is possible to reform, by simple means, the economic life and the personality of the farmer on the farm. The Boys' Corn Clubs have likewise shown how to turn the attention of the boy toward the farm. There remains the home itself and its women and girls. This problem can not be approached directly. The reformer who tells the farmer and his wife that their entire home system is wrong will meet with failure. With these facts in view I have gone to work among the girls to teach one simple and straightforward lesson which will open their eyes to the possibilities of adding to the family income through simple work in and about the home.*

Beginning in the states of South Carolina, Virginia and Mississippi, there were developed that year a number of Girls' Canning

Clubs. In these clubs the girls were banded together, each to produce one-tenth of an acre of tomatoes on their own land, and, when their crop was matured, they were taught to can the product for use in winter. This work increased rapidly. The funds devoted to it the first year were a little less than \$5,000, the next year \$25,000.

This work for girls seemed to appeal to the people. It was taken up with great enthusiasm. The best trained school teachers and well educated and trained farm women were employed as agents and instructed in the work. Home gardening and the canning of fruits and vegetables for winter use appealed to the people as good education and good business. Many of the girls made surprisingly good profits from their demonstrations. They were taught to keep an account and to put up their canned product in standard weight cans, with full pack, and only the finest and most perfect of ripe fruits and vegetables. The result was to give them a ready market, a cash income for the family from a new source, and an interesting occupation. A new industry was thus established. To the canning clubs were added the poultry clubs a little later.

Two features of the Girls' Clubs should be mentioned. First, that they developed the girls and made them skillful and self-reliant. The canning club girls were the best students at school. Second, the very idea of the club, the association of the girls together, the meetings for canning, and all of the activities of the clubs, furnished a much needed social life which was greatly appreciated. Many of the meetings for actual instruction were heralded as social gatherings. The girls made their own aprons and caps (called uniforms) and attracted much favorable attention.

We hear much these past few years about the "mother-daughter" movement. The mothers in the South helped the daughters and were much interested in all that was going on in the clubs. At every meeting of the club for its canning lesson, the mothers were sure to be present and to take some part with their daughters. In the home, while the girls were required to do the actual canning in their competitions for prizes, the mothers were always watching and adopting all that they found good in the lessons for the girls. In this way much of natural prejudice against such an intimate kind of service was broken down and the woman agent found a ready wel-

come into the home and an opportunity to render service to the mother as well as the daughter.

#### THE WORK FOR WOMEN

In the first planning of the work for girls, it was expected to pave the way for the work with women by taking up the work for their daughters. Much help was given to the mothers before any definite work was actually outlined for them. About the year 1914 a few of the women agents began definite work with farm women. These first steps were generally in the direction of labor-saving devices for the home, such as home-made fireless cookers, etc., and the simple preparation of the girls' canned products for the table. The next year many of the women agents took up the work with women, and by the spring of 1916 there were over 7,000 women in the South demonstrating for themselves and their neighbors some new device for the saving of labor, some new method of cooking, or some item of home improvement.

As the club idea had succeeded so well with the girls, and as the idea of community organizations had taken strong hold in the work with farmers, the women were generally encouraged to organize neighborhood clubs. The practical side of the work was not neglected. Every member of the club was doing the work at home. Every one of them was profiting by the lesson and putting the new or improved method into practice. But the club brought them together occasionally. Its meetings were something to look forward to and hence an important part of the work.

#### COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

In the broad development of the work as a whole the county agents, both men and women, naturally divide their activities into three general classes:

*First:* Their actual demonstrations with farmers, their wives, and the boys and girls.

*Second:* The giving out of general information through speeches, meetings, etc.

*Third:* Efforts to stimulate organization.

In the South organization work had proceeded mainly on a community basis. Community interest and activity have been often stimulated by the demonstrations, and the collecting of people

together at the demonstrations has furnished a ready means of natural organization of communities. In many communities there were already organizations such as the Farmers' Union. These are assisted by the county agents. As a rule the community organization has some definite object in view such as the improvement of agricultural practices, standardization of production, maintenance of pure varieties of seed and standardizing the production of various kinds of livestock. Very often, also, they have engaged in the coöperative purchase of supplies, mainly fertilizers, and in some coöperative marketing.

In the northern states there has grown up a type of organization known as the County Farm Bureau, which is mainly an organization of individual farmers who interest themselves in securing a county agent and assisting in the general work in the county. These organizations have proved quite effective in handling a large amount of business and creating greater interest in agriculture.

In many counties in the South the type of organization for the whole county consists in the confederation of representatives from the community organizations to form a county association for the general improvement of agriculture in the whole county. It is not possible in this short article to discuss the merits of the two types of organization. Each type has many points of merit and each seems to be meeting the present needs of the people. The ultimate type may be a combination of the good features of both plans.

Thus in brief we have the complete work involving the service of an educational system for the men, women, boys and girls on the farm. It should be fully understood that the county agent, either among the men or the women, is not left to his own fancy or whim in the work. First there are the state agents or leaders who look after the work in an entire state, with assistants, called by that name, or district agents in case they are given a portion of the state.

There are also specialists to complete the work. These are men who have been trained especially along some particular branch of agriculture and therefore have studied and prepared themselves to meet special problems or sets of problems. These men are entomologists, agronomists, horticulturists, dairymen, pathologists, etc. A few such specialists are employed to assist the county agents along these special lines. There are also such men as market experts and farm management experts who assist the county agents

in their various special problems. All of these together, under a general director, constitute what is usually known as the Extension Work or the Extension Service of the state.

Dr. Seaman A. Knapp died in the spring of 1911 at the ripe age of seventy-seven years. A short time before his death he wrote the following as his conception of the work which he had inaugurated:

#### TWO VIEWPOINTS

The Farmers' Coöperative Demonstration Work may be regarded as a method of increasing farm crops and as logically the first step toward a true uplift, or it may be considered a system of rural education for boys and adults by which a readjustment of country life can be effected and placed upon a higher plane of profit, comfort, culture, influence and power.

Because the first feature of this demonstration work is to show the farmer how he may more than double his crop at a reduced cost of production, it has been regarded by some solely as a method of increasing farm crops by applying scientific principles to the problem. This would be of great value to the world and would stand as a sufficient justification for the efforts put forth and the expenditures involved, but such a conception would fail to convey the broader purpose of this work.

There is much knowledge applicable and helpful to husbandry that is annually worked out and made available by the scientists in the United States Department of Agriculture and in the state experiment stations and by individual farmers upon their farms, which is sufficient to readjust agriculture and place it upon a basis of greater profit, to reconstruct the rural home, and to give to country life an attraction, a dignity, a potential influence it has never received. This body of knowledge can not be conveyed and delivered by a written message to the people in such a way that they will accept and adopt it. This can only be done by personal appeal and ocular demonstrations. This is the mission of the Farmers' Coöperative Demonstration Work, and it has justified its claims by the results.

It is noteworthy that the sciences adopted the demonstration method of instruction long since. The chemist and the physicist require their students to work out their problems in the laboratory, the doctor and surgeon must practice in the hospital, and the mechanical engineer must show efficiency in the shop to complete his education. The Farmers' Coöperative Demonstration Work seeks to apply the same scientific methods to farmers by requiring them to work out their problems in the soil and obtain the answer in the crib. The soil is the farmers' laboratory.

The demonstration method of reaching and influencing the men on the farms is destined ultimately to be adopted by most civilized nations as a part of a great system of rural education.

After his death the work was continued without interruption. In these years it grew as before and its various parts were perfected as the men engaged increased in knowledge and understanding of the

work they were doing. In 1911 the work had been extended to all of the southern states with the exception of Kentucky, West Virginia and Maryland. In these states it was begun in 1913.

#### COÖPERATIVE EXTENSION WORK

As early as the fall of 1911, an effort was made in South Carolina to bring together all the extension work in the state and to join the federal and the state forces into one organization managed under a coöperative agreement. The coöperative agreement was actually perfected in December, 1911, and put into operation in January, 1912. Under this plan the College of Agriculture of the State and the Federal Department agreed on a joint representative to administer the work in the state and agreed on the details and method under which he was to carry the work along. This plan proved an immediate success and was copied in Texas in 1912 and in Georgia in 1913. Florida fell in line in the early spring of 1914.

#### EXTENSION OF WORK

In 1911 some experiments in reaching farmers directly through a resident instructor were tried in the northern states under the direction of the Office of Farm Management of the Federal Department of Agriculture. In the early part of the year 1912 the same office was authorized to begin a systematic effort to extend this practical direct work among farmers into the northern states. The problems to be met were different and it required time and experience to enable the workers to adapt the fundamental principles involved in the demonstration work to the new field. North Dakota began an independent demonstration work early in 1912, afterward uniting with the department's general work of the same character. In addition to North Dakota, New York and Indiana were among the first to develop the work in the northern states. In all the northern and western work the well trained county agent was the necessary part of the plan as in the South.

#### THE SMITH-LEVER ACT

Beginning in 1862 with the Morrill Act for the endowment of the state colleges of agriculture, the Congress of the United States had passed a series of acts to assist the states in agricultural education and research. The Nelson Act increased the funds for teaching

agriculture in the colleges, and the Hatch and Adams Acts created and supported the state experiment stations.

It would be impossible to say just when the colleges had first begun to think about some act to assist them with the extension work or direct work with farmers, but certainly a number of years before the passage of the Smith-Lever Act the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations had been interested and active in that direction. Many of the leading agricultural colleges of the northern states, and especially of the middle western states, had established extension departments of considerable proportions. Their work consisted mainly of the sending out of specialists, the conducting of institutes, movable schools of agriculture and home economics, short courses at the colleges, and boys' and girls' club work. Some plot work and a few demonstration farms of the kind first referred to in the early part of this article were also a part of the work. As already stated, the Office of Farm Management of the United States Department of Agriculture began actual work in the North in 1912. This work of putting county agents into northern counties grew rapidly and appropriations were increased to meet the expense.

It is not the purpose here to trace the history of the passage of the Lever Act. The act was finally approved by the President May 8, 1914. It provides for the establishment of coöperative extension work in agriculture and home economics. Each state was to establish a division for such work at its land grant college, that is, the college which had received the benefits of the Morrill, the Nelson, the Hatch and the Adams Acts. The act provides that the work shall consist of

*instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities, and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications and otherwise; and this work shall be carried on in such manner as may be mutually agreed upon by the Secretary of Agriculture and the State Agricultural College or colleges receiving the benefits of this Act.*

The appropriations from the federal treasury, under this act, began with \$480,000 for the year ending June 30, 1915, which was divided equally, \$10,000 to each of the forty-eight states. For the next year an additional appropriation of \$600,000 was made and then the amount increases by \$500,000 per annum until the amount

reaches \$4,100,000 in addition to the original \$480,000, or a total of \$4,580,000. As to all the additional appropriation above the \$480,000, it is provided that it shall be divided between the states in the proportion that the rural population of each state bears to the total rural population, on condition that "*no payment out of the additional appropriation herein provided shall be made in any year to any State until an equal sum has been appropriated for that year by the Legislature of the State, or provided by State, county, college, local authority, or individual contribution from within the State for the maintenance of the coöperative agricultural extension work provided for in this act.*" This means that at the end of the year 1922 there will be an annual appropriation from the federal treasury amounting to \$4,580,000, and annual contributions from within the states amounting to \$4,100,000 for the support of the work, or a grand total of \$8,680,000. This will be the annual expenditure in this new and important system of agricultural education.

It should be remembered that the law itself makes this a co-operative work. The enormous annual economic loss in the United States by reason of soil depletion, insect ravages, diseases of crops and animals, improper cultural methods, and lack of proper marketing systems has been increasing from year to year. The nation, the states, the colleges and many public and private organizations have been attempting to correct these evils, each in its own way and with its own machinery and independent of the others. The resulting effort could not be otherwise than wasteful, more or less inefficient and often misdirected. Wrong principles were often advocated or correct ones improperly presented. Expensive effort was duplicated many times. Rivalries and competition were more common than harmony and coöperation. The result of it all was doubt, confusion and lack of confidence on the part of most of the people in agricultural work. The new act provides for unity and coöperation. The field force represents both the United States Department of Agriculture and the state colleges of agriculture.

Shortly after the passage of the act the Secretary of Agriculture put the act into effect by making an agreement with each state which brings all the work into harmony and unity through the one state organization representing both the state and the nation. Within the department he established the States Relations Service, the two divisions of which, under the director, handle the relations

with the states under this act and also administer all extension work of the department carried out through the state extension divisions.

Under the present plans there will eventually be a county agricultural agent in every county and also a county woman agent, each supported in their work by a trained force of specialists and a competent administrative staff.

So we have the new system of instruction with its full force of instructors and its plans being worked out. A great public service organization has been created. The effect of this great movement can not be estimated. In the South where it has been the longest in operation, the improvement in agriculture is most noticeable. Thousands of community organizations are drawing together for better rural life, hundreds of thousands of demonstrations are conducted each year and the actual number of persons reached already mounts into the millions. The wastes are being stopped, the bad practices remedied, the diseases eradicated, the fertility of the soil conserved and built up, the marketing systems improved, and country life is beginning to take on an air of interest and attractiveness which will hold its people and draw others to the great life of this foundation calling of the people. At this writing, June, 1916, there are practically 3,000 persons employed in the Extension Work, of whom 1,200 are county agents, 450 are women county agents, and the remainder specialists employed in the various states.

The work is yet in its infancy. With the years there will be improvements. What are now regarded as experiments will settle into accepted practices. Skill, form, system, all will grow and be developed as they have with the teaching in the schools. But the fundamental principle of having the teacher go to the one to be taught and to illustrate the lesson by a demonstration conducted by the one receiving the lesson will remain the very foundation of the new educational system. It has already triumphed where the word of mouth instruction failed. The dream of the founder has become the reality recognized and established by law.

## THE HOME DEMONSTRATION WORK

BY MARY E. CRESWELL,

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Home Demonstration Work, as now conducted in the fifteen southern states under coöperative agreement between the several state colleges of agriculture and the States Relations Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, includes the organization of about 60,000 girls who are enrolled to make demonstrations in canning club and poultry club work and 30,000 women who, in rural homes throughout the South, have undertaken definite work for the improvement and upbuilding of country life. All these demonstrations are directed by an organization of state and county agents who plan the demonstrations to be carried out, furnish information and instruction and work together with such unity of purpose and plan as to bring about each year definite results in the training of girls and women. These agents are aided by extension specialists who are constantly contributing information and skill in home economics and such divisions of agriculture as horticulture, dairying and poultry work. The activities directed by these women represent a type of education but recently recognized, yet of such usefulness that it has become a part of the life of at least 75,000 southern homes, has been given a permanent place in public school systems and receives recognition and aid from colleges and universities of every state.

### HOW THE WORK IS FINANCED

In the beginning, generous financial help from the General Education Board—the corporate trustees of a fund of more than \$50,000,000 given by John D. Rockefeller for educational purposes—made possible the free development of this work. This was soon followed by state and county appropriations. In 1914, Congress made appropriations to take the place of those being made by the General Education Board and the Smith-Lever Extension Act of 1914 brought its first federal appropriations in 1915, thus giving permanent support to demonstration work in agriculture and home

economics. The present year finds an organization of about 400 counties, supervised by 449 state, district and county agents.<sup>1</sup>

#### THE MULTIPLICATION OF ACTIVITIES

Following the development of Farm Demonstration Work as a means of practical agricultural instruction and the development of boys' corn clubs, because many boys insisted upon being enrolled as demonstrators, there was a very insistent demand for activities for girls which should give them opportunity to carry on skillful work in their homes and enter into friendly contest with one another. The opportunity to influence and instruct adults through the interests of their children was recognized from the first.

Activities which have fundamental connection with every country home, and which involve the need for accurate information and skill in doing, were selected. During 1910 some girls' tomato clubs were organized in South Carolina and Virginia, with the aid of teachers and other school officials. These girls cultivated tenth-acre plots of tomatoes, following some simple instructions furnished by the Office of Farm Demonstration Work, and canning their vegetables under the instruction of one of its representatives. The results of this experiment were made the basis during the next year for the organization of from two to four counties each in the states of South Carolina, Virginia and Mississippi, under the leadership of women who were appointed to take charge of each state and with the aid of a few county workers whose services were secured for brief periods in the canning season. In 1912 the states with workers in charge were increased to eleven and a total of 160 counties were organized.

#### THE STATE LEADER OR ORGANIZER

In the beginning of the girls' canning club work, a state leader or organizer was appointed. To help her in each county organized, a capable woman was secured for about two months in the year to hold the canning demonstrations in the summer and give what volunteer help she could in spring and fall. The clubs were organ-

<sup>1</sup> Anyone desiring fuller information about this work can secure it in the bulletins and publications of the States Relations Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, and from the Extension Divisions of each of the State Colleges of Agriculture in the South.

ized and the first instruction was given through the schools where the girls could be met in groups. Correspondence and an occasional visit from the county agent had to suffice as instruction and supervision until the canning season opened when regular field meetings, in way of canning demonstrations for groups of members, were held at central points in the county. Again in autumn, the collecting of results and the holding of an exhibit of canned products were largely volunteer work of the county agent. The results which these workers obtained were so notable that in a short time this general plan was adopted permanently, the period of employment for the county agent increasing rapidly to nine or twelve months.

The girls' canning clubs, with a tenth-acre garden as the basis of each individual's work, have made possible a gradually evolved four years' program of work which thousands of girls have eagerly entered upon. Each year finds a larger per cent of these girls continuing the program and finishing the season's activities. As in all real demonstration work, the girl becomes a "demonstrator." She agrees to follow instructions and use approved methods; her work and its results being accomplished with more skill, greater efficiency, and showing finer quality than that which has heretofore been known, become an object lesson for others and the center of influence in the home and community. Each season brings its characteristic activity of natural work accompanied by the stimulus of individual ownership and group contests in skill and definite accomplishment.

#### A SYSTEMATIC FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM OF WORK

Since the mastery of some definite phase of work is essential for each year, a systematic program has been worked out. During the first year the girls select tomatoes as their main crop, learning a great deal about the cultivation of this vegetable and how to market both fresh and canned products. They acquire considerable horticultural skill in managing their gardens. The financial records they keep give a good business training. For the public demonstrations which they give for the benefit of their communities, these girls find it necessary to make attractive uniforms, aprons, caps, towels, holders, etc. This gives sewing a very definite place in their work. During the second year two vegetable crops are cultivated, these being chosen with definite regard to home needs and marketing con-

ditions. In addition to the canned vegetables, many clubs market soup mixtures, sauces and special products which have been originated for them, like Dixie relish and B. S. chutney. Sewing is continued in the making of uniform dresses of attractive and appropriate design and material. An instance of the use of such uniforms is given in the report of a county agent, as follows:

The meeting at Pheba was especially interesting. Sixteen Canning Club girls in white uniform, cap and apron, gave a program with club songs and yell. Afterwards they served a two-course luncheon to the mothers and teachers. The latter were especially interested and announced their intention of going back to their schools and having their club members make caps and aprons and learn the club songs.

During the next two years, perennial gardens are started and either small fruits or perennial vegetables, suited to the locality, or especially attractive for market, are planted. Many girls who have proceeded thus far are ready to make a reputation for special products from southern fruits such as the fig, scuppernong, May haw and guava, or to succeed admirably with the Spanish pepper for which a great demand exists. The preparation of their vegetable products for the table and contests in bread making are given active place. In many instances, winter gardening is carried on extensively.

#### THE HOME AND SCHOOL AT WORK TOGETHER

It can be easily seen that all of these activities are carried on in the home and form an integral part of the life of the girls themselves, but everywhere the schools are taking a very active part in promoting this work. The coöperation of the teacher is always essential. Since the girls work frequently in groups, many of their meetings are held at school where the girls should receive constant help in reading bulletins, following instructions and in keeping records. Sometimes a hot bed or cold frame is built on the school grounds and there, under the teachers' supervision, plants are raised for the home gardens. Club work furnishes constant opportunity to enliven school room routine with vital interests and fine motives for study. Many instances of the helpful reaction which these clubs have upon the schools have been reported. In a similar way they give the schools a better opportunity to bring influences to bear directly upon the homes. To enumerate a few of the results of demon-

stration work among girls, will perhaps show how this work has made possible the rapid growth of similar work among women. In the future it will be difficult to decide just when the individual gives up her girls' club work and, as an adult, enters upon a series of home demonstrations.

#### THE IMPROVEMENT OF ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

In addition to the educational aspect of this work, must be recognized the economic contribution which these girls' clubs are making. Of the 32,613 girls enrolled in the South in 1915, there were 14,810 whose reports show a total yield of 5,023,305 pounds of tomatoes, 1,262,953 pounds of other vegetables and fruits with a total of 903,562 containers packed and an average profit of \$24.01 per tenth acre. More than 9,000 girls did work in poultry clubs and 3,000 undertook bread demonstrations.

One girl in boll weevil territory with the help of her father and brother put up more than 3,000 cans of fruits and vegetables. She had 200 cans of figs which the county agent inspected and found to be of excellent quality. She had already sold part of her products to a local merchant. When the county agent visited her, her father said, "The boll weevil may eat up my cotton but it can't get inside these cans and jars so we are sure to have plenty to eat and some ready money."

#### VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP

These statistics indicate the vocational value which all this work has for girls in rural homes who have heretofore found it necessary to go into towns and cities to find any remunerative occupation. Equally significant are the many instances of fine individual development among girls and the emphasis which this development places upon the right training for womanhood. Not only is individual initiative aroused, but elements of leadership are developed in country communities where they are most needed. As a means of developing leadership, many states are giving short courses for prize winning club members from the various counties. These girls have proved their efficiency by successful work and already possess qualities of leadership. Upon being given definite instruction in even a few lines of work, they can be inspired to return to their communities and extend to others the same aid. These

girls frequently become the officers of their clubs and the local representatives through whom the county agent works in developing many community enterprises.

During one short course, each prize winner gave the story of her year's work and told how she spent the money earned from her tenth-acre garden. One girl had for two successive years paid her expenses at the county high school out of her earnings; another was helping her brother through college; another purchased a fine cow and still another enabled her father to hold his cotton until spring by making her funds available for certain family expenses. In every instance, the business experience was one which reflected dignity and judgment.

#### LARGER COMMUNITY COÖPERATION

Coöperation for any sort of community development or benefit to the group is difficult to bring about among farming peoples. Club members undertake it more readily than will their parents. One enterprising girl informed her county agent that she had already booked orders for canned products to the value of \$168.00. When asked if she could fill them all, she said, "Oh! no, I expect to have a good many more orders than this when all my letters are answered but there are eight of us in our club and we will do it together."

Instances of neighborly coöperation are not rare. One county agent reported that upon visiting one little girl, named Gladys, she found that she had been ill for two weeks and unable to set out her tomato plants which were fast becoming too large to be transplanted easily. Upon the agent's visit to the next home, she reported the instance and a member of the same club immediately suggested that they get together and do the transplanting. In a short time, six girls met at Gladys's home. The little sick girl was able to be carried out in a chair and sit in the shade to watch the others happy at work transplanting the tomatoes for her. Words failed and tears came instead when she tried to thank her friends for this kindness.

A county agent reported that the home of one of her club members was destroyed by fire. Before she had opportunity to visit this community, the president of the club had called a meeting and its members had arranged to give a "shower" of canned products to the club member to whose family this loss had occurred.

**THE COUNTY DEMONSTRATION AGENT AND HER WORK**

It can be readily seen that the centers of influence in demonstration work are the farms and homes where individuals, perhaps a modest little girl or quiet, home-loving woman, make the demonstrations which teach a lesson to an entire community. This lesson carries greater weight and is more convincing than if made by a skilled specialist from a distant institution but it can be accomplished successfully only when there exists an organization whose leaders have won permanent place in the confidence and affection of the people with whom they work. In the organization of home demonstration work in the South, the county agent holds this important place. Directed by the state agent with headquarters at the state college of agriculture, and frequently given technical help by specialists who come from the same institution, the county agent becomes the personal medium through which information is furnished and by whom skillful demonstrations are directed. The efficient county agent must be a leader and an organizer. She must possess fine sympathy and good judgment. Her knowledge of people and conditions in her county must be wide and accurate. To all this there must be added good training in home economics and a constantly increasing knowledge of the lighter branches of agriculture such as horticulture, dairying and poultry raising.

Demonstration work for women has made most rapid progress where preceded by at least a year of work among girls. Definite results are more quickly obtained among young people who have high enthusiasm and who, fortunately, lack experiences which suggest failure and who are without a sense of caution which previous failures suggest to the mature mind when new enterprises or new methods are proposed. Then, too, the mother's gratitude for training given to her daughter paves the way for active acceptance on her part of instruction and help.

**WIDER USE OF LABOR-SAVING DEVICES**

Improvement in management of rural homes has not kept pace with that of the farm itself, nor can it be compared to the management of the city home from which has been taken every creative industry. For these reasons, one line of demonstration

which has been eagerly undertaken by hundreds of women is the making and use of labor-saving devices and securing more labor-saving equipment from the outside. The economic needs of women on farms demand greater skill in the constructive activities which are, fortunately, theirs to manage and from which the opportunity for financial income and the satisfactions of creative work of high order rightfully come. Therefore, demonstrations in poultry raising, home dairying, etc., are among the first to be undertaken. Demonstrations involving the preparation of food for the table, and sanitary measures, are also popular.

Since 1915 was the first year in which formal Home Demonstration Work was undertaken among women, statistics are necessarily incomplete and do not show the whole extent of the work. It is interesting, however, to note that 2,181 home-made fireless cookers have come into common use, accompanied in many instances by the purchase of kerosene stoves. There have been reported nearly a thousand demonstrations made in the use of a home-made iceless refrigerator by which the problems of the sanitary handling of milk and improvement in butter making are largely solved. A good beginning has been made in installing home water works systems, making inexpensive shower baths, and in improved sewage disposal. In a number of counties, demonstrations along sanitary lines were begun with campaigns against flies which involved the making of 1,423 fly traps in a short time, followed by other active measures against this pest. The making of a few practical devices has been a great stimulus to a large number of people who have contributed clever ideas and useful models for many kinds of work. County agents rapidly receive demands for advice in arranging kitchens and adding built-in conveniences. To meet these demands, extension specialists in farm mechanics are devoting considerable time to assisting the county agents with specifications and plans.

In any demonstrations undertaken, whether in the making and use of labor-saving devices, in better utilization of farm products for the table, management of sanitary or hygienic problems, etc., it must be recognized that in addition to technical information brought from the outside, there exist in any community many excellent practices and much valuable information which are not in common use. To find such practices and arouse individuals to a

sense of their obligation in extending them to their less fortunate neighbors is often a valuable part of the work of the county agent. As soon as this is undertaken or whenever a few individual women successfully carry out definite demonstrations in their homes, active demand arises for community organization which shall bring together those having a common interest in some line of work and in addition give opportunity for social life and recreation. Organizations thus developed assume permanent place in their communities.

#### COÖPERATIVE MARKETING OF PRODUCTS

A form of organization which has been found very successful is that for the coöperative marketing of products which results from certain demonstrations. Of these some of the most successful have been organized for the purpose of disposing of poultry products. In one county nine egg circles sold 4,370 dozen eggs in a few months. The products were so carefully graded that better prices were secured for them than had been received by individuals before carrying on the work coöperatively.

#### HAPPY AND PROGRESSIVE COUNTRY HOMES

With the initial work that has been accomplished, the fine support and coöperation given by many existing organizations and institutions, with federal, state and county appropriations rapidly being made, and a demand for the organization of counties far exceeding each year's possibilities, it is safe to assume that this phase of extension work is permanently established. It has met the need of the most progressive, as well as the least developed, homes and communities.

The county agent now has an avenue of approach into every activity of the home. With increased opportunity for training, which institutions are giving by adapting their courses for her need, and with the opportunity for permanent service in her county, the work of the county woman agent will continue to be the most potent influence for progressive and happy country homes.

## THE LIBRARY EXTENSION MOVEMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES

BY ARTHUR E. BOSTWICK, PH.D.,

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Library extension work may be carried on in either of two ways: by establishing new libraries or by extending the scope of already existing institutions. In cities the tendency now is to lessen, rather than to increase, the number of working institutions, to consolidate individual libraries and to operate all extension work from a central point, through branch libraries, deposits, or delivery stations.

Increase of a library's scope may be extensive or intensive—it may operate by pushing out into unoccupied territory, or it may endeavor to carry the library's work and influence into new fields in territory already occupied. Increase by establishing new branches or deposit stations is usually of the former type. Work of the library with children, with schools or with local clubs is of the latter type.

To illustrate, we may consider a public library of the type common fifty years ago, typified by the Astor Library in New York, supported generally by endowment and limiting its use purely to reference. Its influence, of a quality and value not to be minimized, extended territorially throughout adjacent parts of the city and beyond this in isolated spots, sometimes to a great distance. It was confined very largely to adult students and scholars, more and more so as it extended to a distance. If we compare the quality and extent of this influence with that of the present New York Public Library, we see that in the first place the sphere has been pushed out territorially on all sides and in the second that it reaches many more classes and many more individuals in the community. The territorial extension has been effected by establishing branch libraries, in some cases by consolidation with already existing smaller libraries, by placing deposits of books in educational, commercial and industrial institutions in regions not yet thickly enough settled to support a branch; sometimes also by home libraries placed in isolated families. The intensive increase has been first of all by

lending books out for home use instead of confining all reading to the library, at once trebling or quadrupling the number read by adults in any given region; second, by making special provision for children, thus doubling again the use over any given territory; and third by the employment of some of the devices noted above as effective in territorial extension, namely, coöperation with all sorts of community organizations—social, religious, industrial, educational and so on. The discovery of these subsidiary agencies, getting into relations of friendship and confidence with them, and applying these relationships to the matter in hand, namely, the extension of good reading, has occupied very much of the time and energy of city librarians of late.

The whole extension work, it should be noted, is dependent on a changed conception of the purposes of a collection of books as found in a library, and of the duties of librarians. The modern librarian is a sort of book missionary; he conceives it to be his duty, not only to gather and conserve a collection of books, but to promote the proper use of these books throughout the community. He is anxious that none of his books should remain unused and that no citizen within his jurisdiction should fail to read. The quality and quantity of library extension as above noted are calculated to bring about this result.

Some of the more important agencies of extension will now be taken up and discussed singly.

#### CIRCULATION

The lending of books for home use is now one of the public library's most important functions. In most libraries the number of books available for lending is a large proportion of the whole; and in many there is theoretically no obstacle to the lending of any part of the stock, though it may be necessary to retain a considerable number for reference purposes. The allowed number withdrawn at once has steadily increased of late, until in most libraries there is little restriction in this regard. The old idea that reference use is always serious and home-use relatively trivial is fast disappearing. The open-shelf system, which makes the shelves free to the user, is now universal in branch libraries and is gaining ground in the large main libraries of cities. This in itself has been an important intensive agency.

### CHILDREN'S WORK

This began by an attempt to establish libraries for children alone, but it is now carried on usually in separate rooms, wherever there is an adult collection. In a branch system, the children's rooms are often placed under a superintendent or supervisor so that the whole children's work of the library is carried on consistently by one department. Careful book selection, personal guidance of reading, and often the stimulation of interest by such devices as the telling of stories, are functions of such a department.

### BRANCHES

Branches are often established simply on the demand of a community, but that demand has often previously been tested by some of the other agencies of extension, such as deposits, traveling libraries or delivery stations. Owing to large donations, it has sometimes been possible for cities to lay out a considerable branch system all at once. In such case, considerations of population and area and also the existence of old community centers have governed the locations chosen. A branch is a complete library in itself, having its own building, staff and permanent stock of books.

### DEPOSITS

A deposit is a collection of books, generally for circulation, to be changed at intervals. Small deposits are often called traveling libraries. Such collections are sent to schools, churches, clubs, industrial and commercial houses or to any place where they will be properly cared for and used. Very small deposits sent to a private house to be used by a local group of children under the care of a neighborhood worker are called "home libraries." Some deposits are intended to be used only by the employes of the business house, the pupils of the school or the members of the club to which they are sent; others are for the use of the public in the neighborhood.

The small deposits known as traveling libraries are of two types: fixed and fluid. The former prevailed at first, each "library" consisting of a fixed collection of books which circulated as a unit. The tendency now is to allow much freedom of selection on the part of the beneficiary, so that the collection is made to order, instead of ready made, as formerly. The made to order traveling libraries

are called in many places "open-shelf" libraries—an unfortunate term, the word being already widely used to indicate free access to library shelves—quite a different thing.

#### DELIVERY STATIONS

These are places, usually in drug stores, where books are sent on the order of individual card-holders. There may be a deposit of books at such a station, or a true branch may include both deposit and delivery features. Delivery stations are now regarded only as necessary substitutes, in certain cases, for deposit stations or branch libraries. They offer the user practically no opportunity for selection, but they do give this opportunity to the library authorities themselves, which is not a bad thing. The book ordered at a station is often not immediately available and another is substituted for it. This gives the librarian an opportunity to control reading that may be productive of good when advantage is taken of it with tact.

#### WORK WITH SCHOOLS

This includes not only the use of the school for a branch, or a deposit station, but also efforts to assist teachers by furnishing them with professional literature and offering books for class-room reading, and efforts to see that pupils make use of their neighborhood libraries. Classes are often instructed in the proper way to use libraries, either in the libraries themselves, or at school.

#### CLUBS AND ASSOCIATIONS

If these have club houses or club rooms, they are given deposit collections. If not the assembly or club rooms now included in most library buildings may be placed at their disposal free of charge.

This tends to promote good feeling, to make the club look upon the library as its home and to create a little community center whose focus is a collection of good books.

#### FOREIGNERS

With this same end in view, libraries are adding to their stock books in the home languages of newly arrived immigrants, especially in branch libraries surrounded by them. Large city libraries may thus possess small collections of the literatures of thirty or forty

different tongues and may have a considerable circulation in each. This course promotes Americanization instead of delaying it as some persons once feared it would do.

#### MEN AS READERS

The users of the older libraries were almost entirely men. The first impulse of library extension was to take in women and children also as readers. Over-emphasis of this movement had as its results a relative decrease of male users and the growing danger that public libraries might come to be looked upon in the community as largely intended for women and children. Recent efforts to restore the balance have been in the direction of providing literature of all kinds specially adapted to male adult readers, particularly informative works in the various trades and industries and in the different departments of business activity, such as advertising and salesmanship; the creation of separate departments like the applied science or technology rooms in most large city libraries, and the provision of large collections of purely business reference material, such as city directories, maps, trade catalogues and so on. Municipal reference libraries, modeled on the successful legislative reference libraries in state capitals, have been opened in city halls. Altogether the extension movement seems to have regained the balance that it was once in danger of losing.

#### PUBLICITY

One of the most effective agents of library extension is well-considered publicity. Library boards have usually objected to paid advertising, yet even that is now being employed in many cities, especially on particular occasions. Publicity is directed toward informing all citizens of the library's existence, location, resources and aims, of the fact that it is tax-supported and free to all, and of the educational and recreational advantages of using it. These facts may be communicated to the public by printed matter on placards or attached to bulletins, lists, book-marks and other regular publications of the library; or they may be given orally, in talks or addresses before clubs, associations or schools at stated or special gatherings.

Special days or periods are often appointed to bring the claims of the library clearly before the public, such as the Visitors' Nights held periodically at the St. Louis Public Library, or the Library

Week held recently in Toledo, Ohio. These may have as their object increased financial support of the library, the object being to affect legislation or municipal appropriation. More generally, however, the aim is simply to bring about increased use of the library's facilities by making the public more familiar with what it offers.

#### KEEPING TRACK OF READERS

The net increase of active readers in a library, despite all these extension activities, is lessened everywhere by the fact that new registrations are offset by the disuse of the library by former readers. In connection with extension work some way of ascertaining what becomes of these backsliders must ultimately be adopted by libraries. The prevention of a loss is evidently as effective as the addition of a new reader. So far, this work has been neglected. "Follow-up" experiments have been tried, both by using the mails and by personal visitation, but the results, so far, are not encouraging. Libraries have no uniform method of defining "active" or "live" users; nor can they ascertain, in general, the number included in the class, further than to know the number of holders of unexpired cards. The expiration limit is not always the same, and the "live" holder may have used his card only once within that limit. On the other hand, a really frequent user may have neglected, for the moment, to renew his expired card. Possibly a first step toward solving this problem may be the division of card-holders into groups, based on frequency of use or other ascertainable characteristics.

#### BOOK SELECTION

The extension of library use is evidently closely connected with the provision of books that will attract new readers and hold the old ones. The library tries to regard, in selection, both the needs and the demands of its community. The two factors may not closely correspond, and there is danger in neglecting either. Purchase based on need alone, before that need is fully realized, may repel instead of attract readers; while too ready compliance with an unworthy demand may be fatal to the library's educative influence. Adjustment must continually be made, and the librarian must also be sure that what comes to him as a demand is really the wish of the community and not merely the voice of a few who have learned to press their desires with vigor.

The general participation of a community in book-selection is rare and usually the result of stimulation. Too large an amount of current library book-buying is done in the dark. Librarians welcome suggestions from readers, and are pleased when they are made, even if immediate compliance is impossible for financial or other reasons.

#### BUILDINGS

The prevalence of extension work has vitally affected the form and functions of the large city library building. Fifty years ago there was little more to the internal economy of a large library than storage space for books and room in which to read them. These needs were often satisfied together by placing the books on wall-shelves, or in alcoves around the reading room. The modern building needs also assembly and club-rooms for meetings, exhibition rooms, a special collection, with its reception room, for teachers, a clearing-house for branch and station deliveries and offices for the heads of the various new departments necessitated by the change in policy. The staff is greatly increased, and its personnel must be carefully scrutinized regarding both education and personal qualities. Often the library includes a school or class for training librarians; and all sorts of arrangements for the personal comfort of the staff have become common—locker rooms, lunch rooms, rooms for rest and for recreation, and so on. Part of the building, often the most attractive part, is set aside for the children, and the work connected with home-use—open shelves, registration, reserves, over-dues and all the related machinery—takes up a vast deal of room which must be provided in the precise spot where it is needed. It so comes about that the new is related to the old building somewhat as the modern department store is related to a quiet old shop dealing in goods of only one kind. Branch libraries also must be provided with space for these same activities, excepting only those that depend on the function of the main library building as a headquarters.

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## LIBRARY WORK IN THE OPEN COUNTRY

BY SARAH ASKEW,

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It became apparent years ago to students of the country life problem that some means must be devised to make books available in rural districts. It was evident that the country boy and girl, man and woman, to compete with the city boy and girl, man and woman, must have to an extent the same social and educational advantages. Books seemed to be the greatest need. Without them the country churches were not thriving, there could be no study clubs, debating societies, reading circles or women's clubs, and civic and social clubs stagnated. Grangers and farmer's institutes needed books in their work, and membership and attendance declined. While men and women in the cities were helped to become leaders in every line of business and all professions, through use of the resources of city libraries, the people of the country had to struggle along with the few books they could buy. As the reading habit was dying out and country people began to believe there was nothing in books for them, fewer and fewer books were bought, homes were without them, and there was nothing to relieve the monotony of the winter evenings, or to aid parents in giving their children ideals and in building up character. Schools were poor and when teachers were taxed with not teaching the use of books and developing a taste for good literature, they answered that they could not teach the use of that which they did not have nor could they build up a love for reading when the only books within reach were text-books and those not of the best.

### TRAVELING LIBRARIES

This problem seemed preëminently one to be solved by state governments through legislation and appropriation, so several states took it up. The first means devised was a state system of traveling libraries.

In 1893 New York state passed a law creating a system of traveling libraries and made appropriation for the support of the

same under the administration of the State Library. Soon other states organized similar systems under the administration of either their state libraries or library commissions which had previously been created to further the establishment of free libraries and to aid those already established. These traveling library systems were at first all operated upon what is now termed the "fixed group plan." The books bought were divided into small groups of fifty and placed in little bookcases. These groups were sent out from the State House to communities throughout the state, some local person taking charge of the distribution of the books and agreeing to be responsible for their safe return. When a community was through with one group it was returned and another sent. A fee of five dollars a year was charged, the state paid transportation and libraries could be exchanged as often as desired. These groups were "fixed"; that is, after a group was made up, the books in it were never changed, but when it was returned from one community it was sent to another just as it was.

These collections were made up with the idea of having something in each for every age and every taste, and great care was taken to maintain a supposedly ideal proportion of books on history, religion, useful arts, etc. Many articles were written about "books for all of the people," and many thought the problem of rural reading was solved. Soon it began to be apparent that in a collection of fifty books something for everybody could not be included, and if there was something for every one there was not much for anyone.

"The books don't suit," the farmers began to complain. "Country people have not the reading habit and won't read good books," grumbled the managers of the traveling libraries. In some of the states those in charge of the libraries began to wonder whether "farmers is farmers," and, if "farmers is farmers," whether charcoal burners, fishermen, lumbermen, miners, Swedes, Poles, Hungarians, Quakers, immigrants, and native sons have the same "group" tastes in reading. Several states abandoned the fixed group plan and began to select books for each group to meet the needs of the individual community to which it was to be sent. This was called the open shelf plan. Even those states which retained the fixed group system—because it seemed in a large measure to meet the needs of their more homogeneous population—

added an "open shelf" collection from which books could be drawn to fit unusual conditions. Yearly subscription fees were made lower. In some states no fee was charged but the communities paid transportation. It seemed that the libraries as then constituted should be satisfactory to every one but it soon became apparent that the census report as to the character of the population of any given community was not a reliable guide as to what the people were going to like to read because, with a curiously human twist, an individual lumberman as often longed for a book on geology, or a duck farmer for a book on the relation of science to religion as does the janitor in a twenty-story city apartment house crave a book on poultry raising. As one old farmer said:

Seems like folks down to the State House think because I'm a farmer I want to spend my nights reading about fertilizers. Bless your heart, I don't. I want to git out and above fertilizers. I want to read something, say about them stars I see every night. I would admire to know 'em all by name and when one of them comes peekin' around the corn crib to say, "Why there comes old man Jupiter," familiar and knowing like.

#### TRAVELING LIBRARIANS

It became evident that if the traveling libraries were to be successful the state must employ someone to visit the communities desiring libraries, and find out what they liked and what they needed; and so there came into the field the traveling librarian. Now, this librarian works under many names, but under every name she and her work are about the same. "She" is used advisedly, because, like the inhabitants of Massachusetts, the traveling librarian is mostly of the feminine gender. Someone has said that women have a larger faith and a more boundless enthusiasm. Perhaps that is the reason why women are chosen as traveling librarians, for these two qualities are absolutely indispensable in the library work of the open country.

It is the work of this librarian to go out in the rural districts and small towns, live among the people and get to know them, bring to their consciousness the value of books and tell them how they may be had, find the right person to take charge of the library locally and the best place to locate it, keep alive the interest in books, see that the best use is made of those sent, find out whether the best books for that community have been sent and if they are not being used to discover the reason and apply a remedy. Her

occupations and duties are many and varied. In the morning she meets with the school teachers and they talk over "best books for children," and use of books in the school. At noon she talks to the managers of a glass factory in a forlorn little glass town where no one lives but those who work in the factory, and those who work for those who work in the factory. If she has a persuasive tongue they will let her talk to the men, if she will be brief, and perhaps one of these managers will volunteer to go along with her and "knock the block off" any of them that want to make trouble and won't listen.

In the afternoon she meets with a mothers' club and they discuss the value of ownership of books, and what constitutes a good book. That night some fishermen gather in a storm-shaken hut, and listen to a talk on books, and volunteer in their turn many curious bits of sea lore and thoughts bred by the lonely hours at their work.

An after-dinner speech at a banquet on Saturday night is followed by a talk in a little country church on Sunday morning on "books in the home." A Virginia reel at a harvest home is followed by a meeting with the county board of freeholders to show them "why." The layman will never know how many of these county freeholders do hail from Missouri.

To reach the people she must visit the most remote and out of the way places, for the farther from the big centres the people live and the harder they are to reach the more they need books and the more they appreciate the work of the librarian.

Thrilling stories are told of experiences in the West with forest fires, and forced drives through forests behind unbroken bronchos to find a safe place to sleep. Just a part of the day's work in other states are the drives to the county fair in the same conveyance as the pig which is to be given as a prize to the one that can guess his weight, and the discovery that the pig has whiled away the tedious hour by gnawing the bottom ruffle from the librarian's new summer dress—and her best dress at that; and rides through the beating snow when every feather is torn from the only winter hat.

One worker had the hall in which she was speaking literally burned over her head. The people, although told of the fire, did not see it and were therefore not frightened, and were so much interested in books they would not hurry, although the chairman kept his hand firmly planted in the middle of the librarian's back

and kept repeating monotonously: "You must go out quietly but quickly!" While she, between answering questions as to how Johnny, who only liked the "Motor Boys," could be induced to read something better, or how tomboy Mary could be persuaded to read at all, was protesting that her coat was a new coat and could not be left behind. The remainder of the story, of how no one would stay to watch the fire, of how all adjourned down the road to the schoolhouse to finish the discussion, will not readily be believed by those accustomed to more indifferent audiences.

The demand for libraries grew by leaps and bounds when it was found that an effort was being made to suit the people of each community. The response to the personal work of the librarian, contrary to the expectations and prophecies of many, was immediate and gratifying.

More than any other people in the world, the people of the open country want something better for their children than they have had for themselves. They demanded books when it was brought to their attention that the schools were poor without them, and that books were needed to develop their children's minds and build up their characters.

#### DEMAND IN THE COUNTRY FOR GOOD BOOKS

Contrary to the belief of many, it has been found that country people like an unusually good class of books. It is much easier to awaken in them a desire for good books than it is to interest the city dweller. They are eager to hear of what is the best for their children, to listen to talks about books for the schools, and quick to respond with: "I knew there must be something wrong with the kind of books my boy and girl were reading, but they seemed the best I could get."

Someone asked what books country people like. Why, the same as the people who live in the city. The miners in the northern part of one state read Jokai's *Black Diamonds* until it was held together only by a rubber band; the fishermen in the same state read and re-read Ingersoll's *Book of the Ocean* until they knew it by heart. Thirty copies of *Anne of Green Gables* cannot supply the demand; almost every letter from a librarian of a traveling library asks that something of Churchill's be put in if possible. Mrs. Wister's translations bring comfort and pleasure to many a dear

old countryman and woman. *Les Miserables* is recommended by the country ministers and becomes most popular. *Leather Stocking Tales* keeps many a man reading until midnight, and his wife complains it's hard to get him up to milk the cows. One small state owns more than fifteen thousand children's books and hardly a dozen are to be found in the office at any one time. In this same state more than two thousand books on agriculture are continually in circulation, and the shelves on domestic economy are always empty. Electricity, airships and child study vie as popular subjects with Mexico, moving picture operation and proportional representation. The school teachers are most eager for books that will make their work better. Many a country minister testifies that his work is easier and more efficient since he can get books.

#### THE PLACE FOR THE TRAVELING LIBRARY

It is one of the duties of the traveling librarian to find the best places in a community to station these libraries. They are sent to general stores, grange halls, town halls, school houses, drug stores, churches, private residences and many other places, but every person or association in charge of one must promise that the library will be kept open to everyone in the community.

The general merchandise store is the very best place a library can be sent, because every one goes there at some time, and the merchant generally welcomes the library because it helps bring him trade. One refused, saying he had neither the time nor the room to fool with books, but he wrote a month later asking to be "put on to a library" because a man who had a store three miles away had one and his customers were going there. From this station over 4,000 books a year are circulated, and the wife of this merchant says she buys her hats with the fines from the books that are kept over time. He, like many other local librarians for traveling libraries, has fixed up a little reading room in connection with the library, and people can gather there and look over the books and talk together.

#### SPECIAL LOANS TO INDIVIDUALS

As soon as it was understood that books could be had on special subjects, the demand for them was so great that there were often not enough books of general interest in a collection to satisfy a

community. A plan was devised of sending books wanted by individuals as special loans, without charge, in addition to general collections. The special loan goes through the traveling library, where there is one; where there is none the individual can write in and the book will be sent to him direct. Since the parcel post law has applied to books this service has become most efficient and not expensive. Large libraries are liberal in lending books to those in charge of traveling libraries, to be in turn loaned to country dwellers. One man studying coöperation among farmers boasted that he had books from five libraries, and that one of these was the Library of Congress.

This special loan work has become one of the largest factors in the development of library work with rural districts, and enables students and readers in the open country to get books they need when they need them. With the inauguration of this service traveling libraries began to be of real value and to approximate in the country the work that was being done for cities by urban libraries. The requests come from doctors, lawyers, teachers, farmers, glass blowers, housewives, day laborers, politicians, and in fact from all sorts and conditions of men and women, and the loans go to fishing villages, lumber camps, isolated farm homes, factories, granges, churches, schools, foreign colonies, and every kind of place where men and women, boys and girls, live and work and have ambition and need help. The subjects demanded range from how to raise bullfrogs to railroad management, from a treatise on Saint Paul and Christianity in modern life to the origin of chickens and how many eggs they lay in the wild state.

From a gathering of seventy-six men and boys, who sat with unchanging faces for an hour and listened to a talk on the practical value of books, more than forty letters were received inquiring about books on special subjects. Were there really books on everyday subjects? Would they really be sent to them? Could they get books that would tell the difference between plant lice and caterpillars? A foolish question that may seem, but it meant the spraying and saving of a man's crop.

A boy of fifteen wrote that he was full of ambition for an education, but he had had to leave school. He wanted a book on "How to dance without an instructor," one on "Raising bantams," one on "What it means to be educated," and "a book that's as

interesting as the Motor Boys, which you said wasn't no good." Since that time he has read *Widow O'Callaghan's Boys*, *David Copperfield*, *Nicholas Nickleby*, *Treasure Island*, Scudder's *Life of Washington*, along with books on fruit growing, potato raising, and moving picture operation. One boy wrote, "We used to think we couldn't be nothing but farmers, but now we can get books and be anything we want, and we think maybe it's nice to be farmers."

In the last state-wide debate contest in one state a back county country high school stayed in the contest to the finals because, as the principal wrote, "we could get the books we needed."

One man who was a country plumber wanted to be an illustrator and could not afford to go "even into the Natural History Museum in New York, or to the Bronx Zoo to study from life," so he wanted books. He wanted most unusual books. He got them, and after a year or two the librarian was startled to see a picture by him on the cover of a magazine, so little had she really believed that anything but pleasure to the man would come from it.

#### CORRESPONDENCE-REFERENCE SERVICE

Answering reference questions for people in the country was a sequence to sending out books on special subjects. The questions so asked and answered settle many a country store argument, decide many debates, and help many women make their club and grange papers interesting.

What are some of the questions asked? Just ordinary questions as to how to make and do, and questions we all have asked or thought of, that often come up in arguments, or that newspapers and magazines suggest, etc. What is the meaning of the black in the German flag? What year was there a snow in June? Does the Constitution of Oklahoma contain the grandfather clause? What is the story of the song "Loch Lomond"? Why is New Jersey said not to belong to the Union? What is the Christ of the Andes? What causes the slides in the Culebra cut? Is the water higher on the Pacific side of the canal than on the Atlantic side? Did Cleopatra have red hair? Were the scarabs worn by the ancient Egyptians petrified beetles? How can we clean oil paintings? Do deer lose their horns in the winter? What does Armageddon mean and where did the word originate? How can you make tomato jelly jell?

#### TOWNSHIP CENTERS

In some states the traveling librarian assembles the librarians of the traveling libraries of one township or one district and talks to them about books, finds out what they are doing and what they think should be sent to their communities. This led in one township to the books being all sent to the central village and distributed from there to the other communities. There is a reading room and collection of reference books and a head librarian in the central library. There is a local librarian in each of the other communities. The librarian for the branch selects the books for her community from the main collection, with the aid of the head librarian. These books are changed from time to time so that the local collection is kept fresh. They say nearly every one who comes to the village that has the main library visits it, and as this village is the trading centre most of the people in the township come there weekly. This brings the whole township together and, as the minister wrote, "the library in this township is the main occupation now in the evenings and it is bringing about a community spirit." A township clubhouse, where dances and sociables were held, was soon the outcome. This township contains 56 square miles. Many townships are following its lead.

#### COUNTY LIBRARIES

In large states, county libraries are being established. The smaller the unit the better the work is done, as the people can come more directly and more often in contact with the librarian and the main collection of books.

#### BOOK WAGONS

In some counties and even in some states book wagons have been routed. These wagons are loaded with books and cover a regular route. Stops are made at farmhouses, where there is much pleasant conversation, and books for each member of the family are chosen and requests made for books to be sent on the next trip. This service has met with much success.

#### COÖPERATION

Large city and town libraries are helping solve the problem of country reading by sending books to small communities immediately surrounding them. The ideal condition is that there shall be a

library and reading room within the reach of every citizen, therefore large libraries are being encouraged to so serve villages near them.

The efficiency of traveling libraries when administered by granges called attention to the fact that rural libraries, to accomplish their object should coöperate with other agencies for rural betterment; so traveling librarians began to study these agencies and work through and with them,—the state department of agriculture, the state experiment station, the extension department of the state college of agriculture, the grange, the state board of health, and the state department of education.

The teachers' institutes afford a great opportunity for getting in touch with the rural school teachers and farmers' institutes are one of the very best means of reaching country people as a whole as institute workers are very ready to help and anxious to coöperate. The county agricultural agent becomes in many places a real library agent advising and introducing the librarian and seeing that people get the books. So through coöperation the traveling library system develops into a real factor in country life.

Some one has asked the object of all this work.

It is that "each man and woman, boy and girl, shall have his chance and that the state shall maintain a library which can be used by all of the people who desire books for reading or study, for recreation, inspiration or information, and shall offer a library service that shall make it possible for the most remote community, the most isolated workers, to have books to use as freely as they would have if they were living in the city." It is the goal of the library workers in the open country that every man, woman and child in the rural communities shall get the book that is to help them individually, and that the rising generation shall have the reading habit and demand these things for themselves.

## THE HOME READING COURSES OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BY ELLEN C. LOMBARD, B. S.,

Special Collaborator, United States Bureau of Education.

The Home Reading Courses of the United States Bureau of Education have been established to meet a well-defined need for systematic reading, not only among those familiar with the classics, but among many who have heretofore not had the opportunity to read good books under helpful direction. Through these courses it is hoped that acquaintance with good literature may be promoted.

The great books of literature are those which represent the ideals and tendencies of the people of whom they are written. They are mirrors in which are reflected the thoughts and feelings and aspirations of a race, an age or a civilization. They live through the centuries because they are taken from life.

All people may read the world's greatest literature with pleasure and profit. In some quarters the impression has prevailed that certain books of literature could not be read without the aid of an instructor or, at least, of an outline. It is a fact that so much instruction has sometimes been given *about* these great books, that a distaste for the books has been created in the readers' minds.

Schools have the best opportunity to create in boys and girls a desire for reading and to teach them to discriminate between good and bad literature. They set the standard. Teachers may so establish the reading habit that boys and girls who leave school at an early age will be satisfied with nothing less than the best literature and will supplement their school work by much reading in after life. More concentrated reading may be done in the home than in the school, where the attention is distracted by recitations and the confusion incident to school-room life.

Thousands of boys and girls are leaving school yearly before they have finished the grammar grades. Thousands of men and women testify to their need of further education. To meet this need the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. P. P. Claxton, has inaugurated the National Reading Circle.

The plan already includes ten reading courses as follows:

- |  |                                   |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Great Literary Bibles.                  | 6. Thirty Books of Great Fiction. |
| 2. Masterpieces of the World's Literature. | 7. The World's Heroes.            |
| 3. Reading Course for Parents.             | 8. American Literature.           |
| 4. Miscellaneous Course for Boys.          | 9. History.                       |
| 5. Miscellaneous Course for Girls.         | 10. Biography.                    |

Seven courses are now ready for distribution. Courses seven, nine and ten are in preparation at present.

The first two courses include such books as the *Iliad*, the *Odyssey*, the *Divine Comedy* of Dante, the *Aeneid* of Virgil and the *Nibelungenlied*. Among the books chosen for parents' reading are a few relating to the physical care of children, their moral and spiritual training and a few books on domestic economy and recent fiction.

The preparation of some of the courses has been in the hands of a committee composed of Professor William Lyon Phelps of Yale University, Professor Charles Alphonso Smith of the University of Virginia, Professor Charles Forster Smith of the University of Wisconsin and Professor Richard Burton of the University of Minnesota.

A course in United States history is now in preparation. The committee working on this course in coöperation with the Bureau of Education consists of Professor William Starr Myers of Princeton University, Professor Wilbur F. Gordy of Hartford, Conn., Professor Franklin L. Riley of the Washington and Lee University and Professor William H. Mace of Syracuse University.

Over three thousand men, women, boys and girls have enrolled in the National Reading Circle and are reading the books selected for the courses. The readers represent all walks of life—school principals, teachers, students, business men and women, physicians, lawyers, ministers, librarians. School principals, teachers and librarians are assisting by forming small circles for reading. Housewives are forming reading circles among their neighbors.

The requirements are simple. Each reader is asked to send to the Bureau of Education a notification when each book is begun and finished, and to send a summary of every book read. All courses are to be read once, at least, except the first course which is to be read twice.

When a course is completed, test questions are sent to the

reader. When these are answered satisfactorily, a certificate, signed by the Commissioner of Education, is given.

State library commissions and traveling library commissions are giving their aid, placing the books at the disposal of the readers. Local libraries are coöperating by placing the books in the courses on the shelves. Library officials in all parts of the country report that the demand for serious books of this sort has never been so insistent as at the present time.

Upon application to the Home Education Division, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., full information and the reading courses will be sent.

It is difficult to measure the full extent of this new work. In addition to the large number of persons already on the rolls of the bureau who are taking the courses regularly, there are many others who have been stimulated directly or indirectly by the bureau's efforts to give national attention to the importance of better reading. In this respect the reading courses are but one of a number of evidences of the federal government's newly awakened interest in the long-neglected field of home education.

## VISUAL INSTRUCTION IN NEW YORK STATE

BY ALFRED W. ABRAMS,

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New York.

Approximately 300,000 lantern slides were lent to schools, libraries and organizations of New York state by the division of visual instruction of the state education department during the school year ending June 30, 1916. It is a conservative estimate to say that on the average at least a hundred persons gave more or less intensive study to each of these slides. This is the equivalent of one person studying 30,000,000 different pictures. The pictures lent in the form of slides are also furnished as mounted photographic prints which are widely circulated. Besides, art instruction is encouraged by the lending of large framed reproductions of standard works of art for wall decoration, and schools are encouraged by state aid to buy such pictures.

New York is the pioneer state in the field of organized visual instruction, having begun nearly thirty years ago the preparation of pictorial aids to instruction for its normal schools and larger communities. Since that time more than half a million dollars of state money has been expended in the preparation and circulation of pictures.

### THE SELECTION OF PICTURES

In 1911 the fire in the state capitol destroyed the entire collection of negatives, slides, prints and equipment that had been accumulated up to that time. The loss was a heavy one, but it offered the opportunity in the reestablishment of the collection to put into effect such ideas of visual instruction and such plans of administration as previous experience had shown to be desirable. Many of the earlier practices in collecting and organizing material were abandoned and higher standards established. The pictures of the new collection are superior to the earlier ones in quality, are selected more closely with reference to subject value, and represent a much wider range of subjects. Travel views are relatively less numerous and more attention is being given to art, literature,

history and the sciences. The relatively rapid increase in loans during the last few years is a convincing evidence that a more scientific and pedagogical attitude toward pictures as a medium of expression is being encouraged.

The following are some of the ideas and practices underlying the selection, organization and distribution of pictures at the present time. While entertainment is a proper purpose in the use of pictures, a state collection should be made primarily with a view to serious study and instruction. A collection increases in value as pictures of relatively little importance, of temporary interest and of inferior quality are kept out. Selection, of course, means elimination and in the case of pictures elimination needs to be rather drastic. Pictures are accepted for their authenticity, their truthfulness and their expressiveness. These essential qualities go far toward making pictures attractive, which is another necessary feature.

#### CLASSIFICATION OF PICTURES

A scientific basis of classification similar to that used in libraries has been adopted rather than an arrangement by fixed "sets," in which slides are numbered consecutively. Provision is thus made for accessions and for the selection of pictures by many classes of borrowers in the widest possible range of combinations. All pictures of the collection are made from original negatives owned by the division. Half-tones are never reproduced. Many special drawings and maps are prepared. A full title is given each picture to indicate not only what is shown in the picture, but also the source, place and time of the negative. Study notes and bibliographies are furnished, but no "lectures" accompany the pictures.

The work of the bureau is conducted on the theory that the basis of all true visual instruction is real observation. Impressions must go farther than the physical eye; the mind must analyze a picture before there can be real visualization. Unless there is some mental reaction to the pictures presented, no educational results are acquired. As the reaction becomes more vigorous and better directed, the visualization becomes more perfect. Pictures should be used not merely to entertain and impart interesting information, but even more to train the mind to make accurate observations, intelligent discriminations and correct judgments. In short, visual

instruction is an old inductive process and involves a strict adherence to well-recognized principles of inductive study.

#### A FORM OF EDUCATIONAL EXTENSION

But while the collection is being made and organized primarily with a view to serious class instruction in the schools, it is for that reason none the less adapted for educational extension work. A very large proportion of the loans are made for use by all sorts of local organizations—study clubs, civic societies, churches, etc. Slides used by the schools for class instruction are also presented to parents and others by teachers and pupils in evening exercises. Public libraries not only keep catalogues of the state collection on hand and borrow slides and photographs for the use of local organizations, but also themselves use freely the mounted prints on bulletin boards and reference tables.

The general aim is to make the collection a great storehouse of excellent pictures of things that are of large and permanent interest, to organize the pictures scientifically, and to make them readily available for the use of anyone within the state for strictly free instruction.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See Abrams, A. W. "Visual Instruction and Its Management," *American School Board Journal*, July, 1914.

## THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION AND THE IMMIGRANT

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The Americanization of the alien is a process of adjustment to American conditions. Five factors contribute, or should contribute, to this process.

The first of these factors is the protection of the alien from exploitation and defraudation by private bankers, steamship ticket agents, employment agents, padroni and a host of those who feast upon the ignorant and helpless. Such protection by the state impresses upon the alien a higher ideal of American citizenship and eventually makes him a better citizen.

The second factor is the proper employment of the immigrant. A substantial proportion of those immigrating annually are farmers or unskilled laborers. Coming from farms or rural communities, they go into our complex industrial system—into our factories, our shops, our mines. Not equipped by nature or training, not drilled by experience, they enter into a new field of human activity with handicaps which subsequently mean their physical and industrial decline. The failure of America to direct these men into suitable occupations is responsible for many labor difficulties and industrial tribulations disturbing to our American commonwealth.

A closely related factor is that of distribution. In fact, vocational direction of the newly arrived alien is the point of departure for a national system of distribution. Any effort to divert or direct immigrants from "foreign colonies" in our large cities, exerts a powerful influence on their ultimate assimilation by increasing the multiplicity of contacts with Americans. As colonization minimizes contact with outside influences, so obversely does distribution enhance association with American citizens, institutions, forces and ideals.

Education, however, is the most potent force toward inculcating American ideals and impulses. The English language and a knowledge of the civic forces of the country are indispensable to the

alien in adjusting himself to America. Through our common speech comes understanding. Without it the pages of our newspapers are meaningless and ordinary matters of business with Americans must be transacted through the medium of an interpreter. Only by overcoming inability to speak English, by eliminating illiteracy among aliens, and by instilling the ideals, attitudes and habits of thought of America, can we hope to make real American citizens of the strangers within our gates.

Naturalization is the last factor in Americanization, and it is less important. It is merely the legal procedure applied after the other factors have exercised their full influence upon the alien. Being the final step, however, it is necessary that the standard of qualification should be high and that the technicalities of admission to citizenship be reasonable, in order that the process of Americanization actually be contributed to, not hindered.

The education of children of immigrants in the day schools has always been considered a primary and essential function of the school system. But the training of adults in English and civics has not been generally so considered. Evening schools, through which only can adults be reached effectively, have usually been regarded merely as adjuncts to the day-school system, and hence are maintained when funds can be spared or eked out. Adequate facilities for the adult are rarely organized and maintained as an organic part of the educational system with a specific appropriation and unified supervision. In fact, education of immigrants has been left too largely to the well-intentioned but sporadic interest and effort of private organizations and individuals. The provision of public facilities may, therefore, be treated at present and for some time to come as a legitimate extension activity for educational systems.

It is with this latter conception in mind that the United States Bureau of Education has for a considerable period been actively engaged in promoting the extension of facilities for the education of immigrants over the compulsory attendance age. Authority to undertake this extensive program is derived from the organic act creating the bureau in 1867 and from various acts of Congress making appropriations for the purpose of promoting industrial and vocational training, the elimination of illiteracy and the cause of education generally.

From the very beginning a definite, well-articulated procedure has been pursued: (1) to carry on a searching nation-wide inquiry into the entire field of immigrant education; (2) to formulate, compare, and interpret the data thus obtained; (3) to devise standards and methods based upon the experience and practices of those dealing with the subject first-hand; (4) to promote the organization and maintenance of facilities wherever possible; and (5) to develop and shape national, state and city policies in the education of immigrants.

Activity along these lines was made effective by the organization of a Division of Immigrant Education with a staff of experts and assistants specializing in the subject in hand.

#### INVESTIGATION INTO CONDITIONS

Examination of the Census reports disclosed some astounding facts in 1910. No fewer than 2,896,606 foreign-born whites fifteen years of age and over could not speak the English language. Frequently this handicap was compounded with illiteracy, for 1,636,677 could not read and write in any language. The two closely allied problems thus presented, when taken in connection with the annual immigration from countries in southern and eastern Europe and in Asia, whose varied peoples are not only non-English-speaking but largely illiterate, directly affect the continued existence and stamina of the ideals, institutions and democracy of America.

Nor are these problems substantially diminished by attendance upon school. Only 138,253 foreign-born whites over fifteen years of age were attending school in 1910. As attendance is voluntary for those over sixteen years of age with but two or three exceptions, no appreciable decrease in illiteracy and inability to speak English will occur unless unusual efforts are put forth to extend educational facilities and to induce or compel the attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate persons upon such facilities.

#### INADEQUATE FACILITIES AND APPROPRIATIONS

To verify the suspicion that schools and classes for adults were not adequate, a representative made a tour of the country in 1914, visiting most of the important cities where aliens were congregated in large numbers. The information thus secured, together with returns upon several thousand questionnaires sent to all city and

county superintendents of schools, demonstrated conclusively that the facilities for educating the immigrant cannot cope with the present problem. Appropriations for evening-school work were found to be omitted in many instances, or wholly neglected in others. Even in states and cities having an extremely large foreign-born population, sums appropriated were surprisingly low. This fact greatly handicaps school authorities by making it impossible to centralize supervision of immigrant education and by preventing the appointment of teachers specially trained and adapted to this kind of teaching. Superintendents are also unable to pay salaries sufficiently attractive to make it possible for teachers to devote their entire time to evening-school instruction, and are, therefore, obliged to use day-school teachers in the evening schools to the physical detriment of the teachers and consequent loss to the pupils. Inadequate appropriations also shorten the evening-school terms which with a very few exceptions are entirely too short, not only to obtain the best results, but to cover the period of heaviest immigration in the late spring. Similar considerations prevent the proper advertising of schools, classes, and subjects, and the carrying on of well organized publicity campaigns to increase the attendance of foreigners upon evening schools.

#### CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGISLATIVE HANDICAPS

A more surprising legal aspect of the situation was disclosed. Not only do few state constitutions provide for school facilities for adults, but many of them, either by limitation as to years or as to state aid for the maintenance of classes for pupils over twenty-one years, place a heavy handicap upon the organization of facilities for adults. This is the case in no fewer than fifteen state constitutions. In few states again do school laws make the establishment of evening schools mandatory upon local school boards, while only eleven states grant financial aid in support of such schools. Thus, without the encouragement of federal aid and frequently even without state assistance, it is not surprising that facilities for the education of the immigrant population are insufficient, especially when it is considered that much of this population is of a transitory nature and communities naturally hesitate to assume the entire financial burden of maintaining schools for the benefit of many who may subsequently remove to another locality.

#### PROMOTION OF FACILITIES

As an immigrant child, through attending our American schools, does much toward Americanizing its parents, it is important that each immigrant child, immediately upon arrival in this country, be placed in the proper school and grade. Owing to the desire of the immigrant parents, who generally come to this country in impecunious circumstances, that their children from thirteen to sixteen years of age should work, many children of school age are placed in unlawful employment and frequently taught to conceal their correct ages.

#### FACILITATING ATTENDANCE OF ALIEN CHILDREN

To reduce the seriousness of this condition a coöperative arrangement was developed between the United States Bureau of Education and the United States Bureau of Immigration whereby the names, prospective addresses, ages and other items of identification of all alien children of school age entering our ports are sent to the respective superintendents of those communities to which such children are destined. This plan was put into general operation last fall, and school superintendents have already begun to report that this information supplied by the federal government has materially aided them in locating alien children before they became unlawfully employed, and in ascertaining the correct ages of those who attempt evasion of the compulsory attendance laws.

#### "AMERICA FIRST" CAMPAIGN

Immigrants generally are not aware either of the existence or nature of evening-school facilities. Annual advertising in the American press by school authorities does not serve to secure the attendance of those who do not speak English or who do not read. An aggressive campaign of publicity by means of posters, handbills, dodgers and newspaper articles in the foreign-language press is necessary. For its psychological effect upon aliens and local communities an "America First" poster was distributed during the fall and winter, 1915-16. Attractively lithographed in red, white and blue, it bore upon its face the unusual invitation in eight languages:

Learn English; Attend Night School; It Means a Better Opportunity and a Better Home in America; It Means a Better Job; It Means a Better Chance for Your Children; It Means a Better America; Ask the Nearest Public School about

Classes; If there is none in your town, write to the United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

A figure of Uncle Sam in the foreground, extending the hand of welcome to an immigrant workingman and pointing with the other to a school, lends to the poster a touch of patriotism and fellowship.

Over one hundred thousand posters were sent to school superintendents, post offices, industrial establishments, chambers of commerce, newspapers, private organizations and individuals. The "America First" idea appealed to the imagination of the country and the prompt requests for posters, coming from all parts of the United States and even from abroad, very shortly exhausted the supply.

As a result of the awakening caused by this campaign the bureau has been called upon to answer requests from school superintendents, principals, teachers, industries, organizations and interested individuals for suggestions in organizing classes for immigrants, for bulletins, publications and statistics, for methods of instruction and for coöperation in a variety of ways. A large number of industries and chambers of commerce immediately expressed a desire to coöperate with the bureau in getting employes to attend classes in English and civics. Several distributed circulars among employes urging attendance; others offered a wage increase to those in regular attendance; some made attendance compulsory; while still others established a rule that in making promotions the English-speaking employe would be given preference over the non-English-speaking. Private organizations especially became active, and while every service possible has been rendered them, they have been uniformly urged to place all educational facilities organized or contemplated under the general supervision of local school officials, in order to avoid duplication of effort and useless expenditure of time and money.

#### IMMIGRANTS PETITION FOR NIGHT SCHOOLS

The most significant outgrowth of the "America First" campaign is seen in the large number of letters and petitions received from foreigners and written in their native languages. By far the greater number of these was received from communities where no evening schools had been previously maintained. The tenor of

these communications may be gathered from the following petition signed by sixty-five Lithuanians:

TO THE HONORABLE BOARD OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.:—

The undersigned citizens of the United States, of Lithuanian parentage, residing in Melrose Park, Cook County, Illinois, do respectfully petition your Honorable Body to install a free night school in our locality for the purpose of the education of the Lithuanian-American citizens in the English language.

There is at present in our locality no free night school offering any opportunity for foreign born citizens to become educated in the English language, although there are approximately three thousand (3,000) foreign born American citizens in the village of Melrose Park, and surrounding territory.

This and similar requests signed by a large number of foreigners in other communities have been taken up officially with the respective school authorities in communities where the petitioners resided, with the result that suitable classes have been organized in several places where such facilities had never before existed. Where a lack of funds made it impossible for local school boards to respond to these requests, the active coöperation of industries was solicited and classes organized in some communities with private support. Practical considerations, such as increased efficiency, diminution of accidents, and reduction of the cost of supervision, rather than a desire to engage in welfare work for employes, were the motives actuating industrial establishments in conducting, or contributing to the support of, classes in English and civics.

#### TRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR IMMIGRANT CLASSES

Training of teachers is an important factor in the education of aliens. Without teachers having known ability to teach immigrants, a knowledge of foreign types and the best methods of teaching them, satisfactory progress cannot be made by a class of adults. Hence, school officials have been encouraged to conduct training courses in immigrant methods. A very notable course was conducted by the New York State Department of Education in coöperation with the bureau for teachers in several cities in the vicinity of Albany, N. Y. Interest and attendance were so unusual that the department organized a permanent course in the New York State Teachers' College at Albany, while Buffalo and Rochester Boards of Education were also inspired to arrange and conduct similar training courses for teachers in their respective sections of the state. The United States Bureau of Education has also coöperated with Boston and Detroit by furnishing a lecturer for similar institutes.

While local efforts in the training of teachers are direct and efficient for local purposes, it is necessary to look to the colleges, universities and normal schools for that general training which will produce a teacher or social worker of ability, insight, and vision. Inquiry disclosed that only fourteen such institutions, out of one hundred forty-seven reporting, had special courses in "Immigration," and even these courses were treated in a purely academic manner. Sixty-nine conducted lectures in connection with courses in economics, history, and sociology, while sixty-three reported no attention whatever to the subject of immigration or the training of students for service among immigrants. To stimulate activity a "Professional Course for Service Among Immigrants" was prepared for use in colleges and other higher institutions of learning. A circular letter directed to the heads of such institutions tendered coöperation in the introduction of the course. In response thirty-four institutions have expressed the possibility of adopting the course in whole or in part. By special arrangement a training course of fifteen lectures was given by a representative of the Bureau in Yale University this spring for which elective credits were given. The experience thus gained will provide the basis for a revision of the published course.

Although the immigrant woman is no small factor in the "Americanization" program, but little attention has been given her in the past. The duties of the home and objections on the part of husbands and fathers make it a difficult task to enroll foreign women and girls in the evening schools. The initial responsibility for making points of contact for the immigrant mother and daughter with Americans rests primarily upon American women and upon their clubs and organizations. A program of work for women's organizations has been prepared for general distribution, covering a study and promotion of night school facilities, library facilities, home education, and improvement of living conditions, together with a variety of other activities for the amelioration of the conditions of immigrant women.

#### FORMULATION OF STANDARDS AND METHODS

One of the most important functions is the formulation of standards and methods. "Standards," however, does not mean "standardization," but the statement of policies, practice, or

methods of the most advanced and approved kind. As the bureau has no administrative authority over the schools of this country, it can promote standards only by the presentation of facts, experience and reasoning, and by demonstration of their efficiency and merit.

For the purpose of paving the way to approved standards and methods in immigrant education, a tentative schedule has been prepared, dealing with recommended legislative action, organization and administration of educational facilities, factors and agencies for training, and content and methods of instruction.

Constructive state legislation is urged looking toward compulsory attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate persons under twenty-one years, and a general requirement that classes in English and civics be maintained in all communities where twenty or more aliens are affected by the provisions of the suggested compulsory attendance law or where that number formally petition for evening schools.

#### A NATIONAL, STATE AND CITY PROGRAM

No extension propaganda can be ultimately successful unless it grow out of a constructive program. To insure the constructive nature of any program, the most approved practices must be considered in connection with needs and conditions. Such consideration has developed the following national, state and city program, which because of its intimate bearing upon the various extension activities of state and local school systems is set forth at length at this point:

##### NATIONAL PROGRAM

(1) Formulate standards and methods in the education of immigrants and plan and prepare standard courses in English and civics.

(2) Continue the sending of names and other facts of identification of alien children admitted at ports of entry, to proper school officials at points of destination in order to aid enforcement of labor, compulsory attendance, and other school laws. Place in the hands of each child of school age suitable material regarding educational opportunities in the United States.

(3) Publish and distribute an educational handbook for aliens

dealing with evening schools, libraries, compulsory attendance laws, colleges and other educational opportunities and information.

PROGRAM FOR STATES

(1) Amend the education laws to necessitate compulsory attendance of non-English-speaking and illiterate minors between the ages of fourteen and twenty-one years, fixing the standard of literacy as equivalent to that necessary to completion of the fifth grade in the public schools. Make this effective by amending the labor laws to prohibit the employment of such minors unless weekly reports of regular attendance are presented to employers.

(2) Require all communities, where twenty or more aliens affected by the amendment proposed in (1) above, or where twenty or more petition formally, to establish and maintain evening schools or other appropriate facilities in which English and civics are taught throughout a period of at least one hundred sessions in communities of less than 100,000 population and of at least one hundred twenty sessions in communities of over 100,000 population.

(3) Multiply media for educating foreigners, such as camp schools, industrial and vocational schools, continuation and part-time schools.

(4) Develop traveling libraries of foreign-language books, and books in English suitable to foreign-born readers, and place such libraries in evening schools where foreigners are receiving instruction.

(5) Grant state aid, subject to appropriate requirements, to cities and school districts compelled to establish or maintain facilities pursuant to the operation of the compulsory attendance amendment above referred to.

(6) Centralize general control and supervision over classes in the state department of education.

(7) Prepare bulletins and syllabi for local use and standardize classes, terms and courses.

(8) Provide free textbooks or authorize city and district school boards to provide them in evening schools and classes.

PROGRAM FOR CITIES

(1) In large cities concentrate all immigrant educational activities for persons above compulsory attendance age under one supervisor appointed by the superintendent of education with

powers to coördinate classes, courses, methods and subject matter, and otherwise organize the education of aliens as a unit.

(2) Appoint teachers of English on the basis of known ability to teach immigrants, experience, training and knowledge of foreign types.

(3) Conduct teachers' training courses for the purpose of demonstrating the best methods of teaching English and civics to immigrants, and for establishing standards in subject-matter and methods.

(4) Lengthen the evening-school term to cover the spring period of heavy immigration, giving three nights of instruction per week, one and a half hours per evening.

(5) Establish branch or deposit stations of the city library in all schools where students are taught, selecting books with the assistance of committees from foreign societies made up of the better educated foreigners, and also securing from the state traveling library books in English and foreign languages suitable to adults.

(6) Develop the use of schools as neighborhood centers for meetings of foreigners' societies and parents' associations.

(7) Advertise evening-school facilities in foreign-language newspapers; distribute circulars and posters in the principal foreign languages throughout the foreign quarters; post notices in factories where aliens are employed; send letters to foreign organizations requesting coöperation; and appoint committees of foreigners to procure attendance of adult immigrants.

(8) Ascertain the type of educational work for foreigners being conducted by private agencies, and solicit the coöperation of such organizations.

The coöperation of all interested public and private agencies has at all times been solicited by the United States Bureau of Education in order that all may work together in a complete educational program of Americanization. Only through such mutual assistance can any national, state, or city program be effectively carried out. Standards depend for their maintenance upon the support of the public. Needed legislation will be secured only when interested individuals and organizations unite in demanding its passage. The national publicity campaign now being organized to extend facilities and to increase the attendance of immigrants will demand the interest and coöperation of every patriotic American.

## EDUCATION THROUGH OFFICIAL PUBLICITY

BY WILLIAM H. ALLEN,

Director Institute for Public Service, New York.

The extra-curricular influence of schools is far wider than their extra-curricular activities.

The influence of every strong teacher upon his pupil when teacher and child are separated is more important than the influence of direct contact with the child. It is the same with the school's official publicity. Its indirect effects are of wider range and deeper import than its direct effect.

School publicity affects for good or ill all other official publicity. If it is lifeless, insincere, boastful, unconvincing, slovenly edited, it is a low-water mark with which every other city department will tend to find level. If, on the other hand, it is alive, informative, direct, frank—educative—other departments will tend to compete in these respects.

A school superintendent told me recently that his report had been so different from the reports of other town officers that it was necessary for other official reporters to notice the difference. He had used blocked headings in effective black face type, interesting diagrams and photographs, the short paragraph method of listing achievements and recommendations, and the square facing of taxpayer doubt with school fact. Other reporters could not laugh him out of town meeting if they would. They decided to imitate instead.

More than half their time our twenty odd million school children are out of school. Four fifths of our whole population are not attending school any of the time. If out-of-school time is to be used consciously for educational purposes it must be through other means than the school curriculum and extra activities. Because all employers, all parents, all "bosses," all salesmen are in a teaching relation, it becomes of the utmost importance to see that what's in the air—*i.e.* what is done to affect teaching outside of school—will directly supplement teaching in school.

Official publicity is not only the most effective form of publicity

but it is one of the most important factors in publicly organized education. It concerns most men. In fact it concerns all men. It is the only thing which does concern the whole public. The reader of a paper listens to what a distinguished private citizen says without feeling that it is part of his own responsibility. When he reads what a public official says he instinctively feels that he is reading about himself and speaking to himself about his own work. There are at least

#### FIVE KINDS OF OFFICIAL PUBLICITY

1. Formal addresses such as at commencement and inaugural exercises, or reports to annual meetings
2. Incidental or informal addresses at public meetings, banquets, women's clubs, chambers of commerce, etc.
3. Verbal interviews or matter sent to newspapers whether initiating with the newspaper or with the school official; current reports of school activities
4. Exhibits
5. Annual reports

These five forms are found together in many places. Important educational work is done through each. The exhibit method is found also as part of each of the four other methods. For example, President Godfrey of Drexel Institute uses the graphic method in presenting monthly reports to his board of trustees. William McAndrew, associate superintendent of New York City, employs the graphic method even in writing letters to school commissioners. Dr. Leonard Ayers gives chalk talks and chart talks to teachers' associations.

*Formal addresses* not only offer occasions for testing public interest and capacity for growth, but bring pressure to bear upon part of the public through the rest of the public and upon officials, including teachers, through the general public. President Finley, of the University of the State of New York and commissioner of public education, makes effective use of the formal address.

*The incidental or informal address* is in many ways more important than the formal address. The after-dinner or special-occasion speaker finds an audience off its guard and susceptible, particularly if his remarks are to the point, brief, and breezy. School men are using these occasions extensively. Because their work is vital and full of concrete material they are welcome contributors to local and state meetings of women's clubs, merchants'

associations, bankers, lawyers, etc. In many cities the school superintendent is the toastmaster paramount. Probably no one has done more to educate through official publicity than President Vincent, of the University of Minnesota, or Mrs. Josephine C. Preston, state superintendent of public education in Washington.

*Informal, cumulative publicity* like the interview, either grudgingly given on the insistence of a live newspaper or consented to by the editor upon the insistence of a live superintendent, is playing a more important rôle each year. Until quite recently the interview was shunned by cautious superintendents chiefly because it was given a bad reputation by the inveterate self-advertiser. School men are realizing, however, that in order to insure community protection against stampedes they must insure continuous education of the public and *must make it easier for newspapers to print the truth and essentials than to print non-truths and non-essentials*. Hence we find today the weekly or monthly bulletins printed by universities such as that of North Carolina, and by state departments and normal schools such as Wisconsin's. Then there are written "releases" or notices given out by city superintendents, sometimes through composition classes. The short stories are used, sometimes as features, sometimes as editorials, and sometimes as fillers by newspapers. In some cities—for example, Decatur, Illinois and Madison, New Jersey—from one to five items a week, and from one to three columns are given to school news. Superintendent Albert Leonard of New Rochelle, New York, prepares items sometimes attributed to the superintendent, frequently published as newspaper discoveries. These releases from educational headquarters are today directly educating more individuals than does the educational system itself.

*The current report* to the board of trustees is not given to newspapers as much as it might be, but is being increasingly used. No month goes by without its own interesting events. It is simply a question whether the newspaper shall be offered a digest of worth while facts or be left to stumble and search for school news.

*The exhibit and the annual report* are two forms of publicity which involve all the technique and principles of the three other forms, and which disclose all their deficiencies, plus several others. Special attention, therefore, is here given to publicity as expressed through the annual report and formal, cumulative exhibit.

#### EDUCATION THROUGH EXHIBITS

Education through exhibits has become a popular form of education—and of diversion! Four kinds are increasingly used by educators—special, current, traveling, report.

*Special exhibits* bring to mind the kind of thing which was done at the Panama Pacific Exposition in San Francisco and which is being done by book companies and school systems at meetings of state and national education associations. As part of state fairs we have annual exhibits of school work including "high spots" in domestic science, handwriting, corn growing, etc., selected from competitive school tests first in villages and then in counties. During its recent centennial celebration Indiana made its state house at Indianapolis an extensive and live exhibit of contrasts and advances, largely contributed by counties.

*The current exhibit* is of special interest because it changes and grows from month to month as improvements are brought to light. Many principals keep a running exhibit of the best work of their schools, on class blackboards, in hallways, and in the principal's office. Superintendents are beginning to keep bulletin boards which are current exhibits of the best material from outside the city and from within.

*The traveling exhibit* is not yet familiar in the school field. Few exhibits have been circulated. That is, they have been exchanged, but even within cities where central exhibits are held, it is not customary as it should be to circulate at least miniature exhibits to all schools—as was done in New York with dental and tuberculosis exhibits. It is as true of exhibits as of any form of merchandise that the exhibit must go to the patron and not wait for him to come to it. There is greater reason for having an "education train" sent at public expense from place to place than for sending a grain car or a health car. What would happen to schools if we sent a "high spot" car or an exhibit of best things in education, including moving pictures, victrolas, cooking and shop work, to every railroad station?

*The moving picture* has not been adapted as extensively as must soon be done. Films are available without cost to show industrial processes. Routine work of schools must be filmed. Shortly all schools and classes must have what many now have—movable photograph apparatus for moving pictures.

One by-product of the exhibit method has not yet been worked out systematically enough—*i.e.* the opportunity to give children and students live problems to work out in arithmetic, percentage, cost and drawing. College men and women still pick dry leaves and measure widths and breadths in order to learn the meaning of averages, norms, and medians! How much more profitable it would be to spend their time measuring empty rooms, finding the unit costs of instruction, diagramming improvements in scholarship, listing alumni achievements and university needs-not-met, the University of Wisconsin's biennial exhibit by students indicates. For the Shakespeare tercentenary elementary and high school pupils throughout the land devised and made costumes, gardens, stages, etc.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL REPORT

A large number of reports have been read recently by the Institute for Public Service at the request of school superintendents and presidents of colleges and universities. Among evidences noted that the educational opportunity has not been capitalized by official reporters are these:

1. Unattractive cover
2. Delay in addressing the audience—reports come too late and reporters take too many pages getting started
3. Crowded page or chart
4. Too small type
5. Absence of photographs, or too few
6. Lack of graphic illustration
7. Failure to list advance steps
8. Failure to list needs
9. Failure to make recommendations
10. Failure to state how much the carrying out of recommendations would cost
11. Failure to base recommendations on facts or to relate them to facts
12. Failure to support recommendations by facts and interpret actions
13. Using generalization rather than concrete facts, often when concrete facts are available
14. Too much is placed on charts, in correcting which the Child Federation of Philadelphia has made special progress in exhibits which can be found described in pamphlets issued upon request
15. Chart material, etc., has been elaborated too little orally at exhibits. The best chart work possible can be made much more effective if supplemented by a live interpreter. In reports on the other hand charts are explained too much and need too much explanation. Obviously the purpose of a diagram is to help

carry the load—it adds to the load if its story needs interpretation—as moving picture concerns quickly learn!

16. Live exhibits have been used too little, such as children in relay races in arithmetic, or giving demonstrations of trade work, or doing regular classroom work

17. Cartoons and humor are too rare—the Russell Sage Foundation has “legitimized” them in its reports on Cleveland schools

18. Too much is told at a time. Reports must be issued in installments as by New York City and the Cleveland school survey

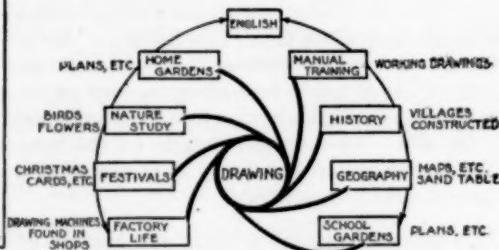
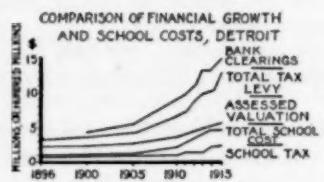
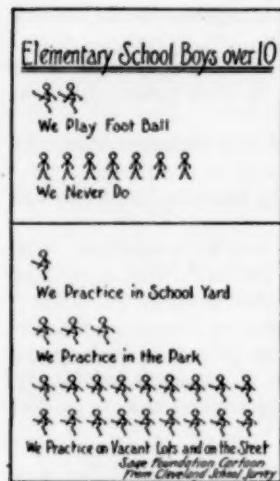
19. Interest is exhausted by too many salutations from subordinates to chief, and by allowing deans or division heads to “ramble, ramble.” Requiring brief lists of advance steps, studies made, obstacles and needs will help cure this defect

20. There is too much writing to dead predecessors or distant professional colleagues and too little writing to those who furnish the children or students and pay the bills. That accounts largely for the rareness of self-study, auto-study, analytical comparative review of what education is costing and how its product compares with its opportunity

The best annual reports are the liveliest, freshest, strongest material available on education. They are a decade or a generation ahead of books. Long before bookmakers crystallize the best experience for the help of isolated administrators many of those isolated men and women have been expressing doubt or demonstrating improvements in their annual reports. The General Education Board's book pictures, 1916, of the Rural School of Tomorrow and The Modern School (which may be procured upon request, 61 Broadway, New York City) read like ancient history to the vanguard of rural and urban educators.

So much does education of the public depend upon official publicity that the report broker must soon come to be as usual as the play broker or the consulting engineer. In addition to attending colleges of education to hear how schools should be administered from those who never administered schools educational reporters will take a summer perhaps by correspondence in the study of their own reports and other official publicity. At any rate it will soon be generally true that educators will recognize two essentials to progressive growth:

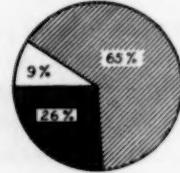
1. Official publicity is the educator's greatest opportunity
2. Preparedness for official publicity will more and more require such daily working, daily analyzing, and daily recording as will erect the structure of which official publicity at its best is only the reflection.



HOW ONE ACTIVITY MAY RELATE TO MANY SUBJECTS  
NORTH ATTLEBORO, MASS., SCHOOL REPORT

PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN ACCORDING TO AGE GROUP DAYTON, OHIO

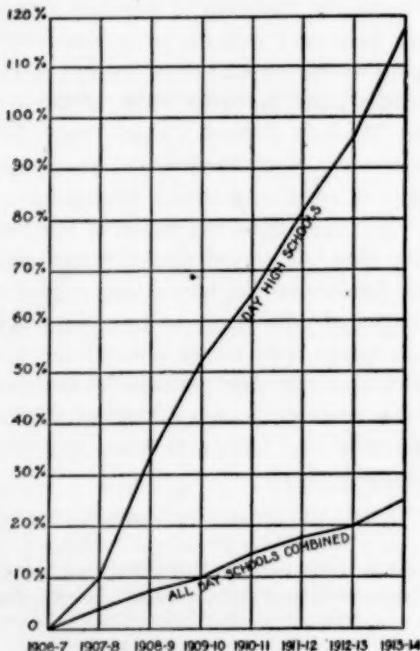
AT TIME OF ENTERING GRADE I 1913-14



IN WHOLE SCHOOL SYSTEM 1913-14



■ UNDER NORMAL AGE  
■ NORMAL AGE  
■ OVER NORMAL AGE



COMPARISON OF THE GROWTH OF DAY HIGH SCHOOLS AND ALL DAY SCHOOLS BY PERCENTAGES IN NEW YORK CITY

## THE PUBLIC SERVICES OF THE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY EXPERT

BY CLYDE LYNDON KING, PH.D.,

Assistant Professor of Political Science in the Wharton School of the University  
of Pennsylvania

The vast sums of money invested in the property of our higher institutions of learning, and the millions paid out annually for salaries come directly or indirectly from the public's resources.

If the trustee of material wealth is under obligation to employ his means for human betterment, the trustee of specialized information is surely under equal obligation to so use or disseminate his information as to make it of service to society at large. The general acceptance of this fundamental social obligation has made a society out of twentieth century individuals.

The old axiom that the best teaching is in the doing is as sound for the university or college professor as for the kindergartener. Those teach best who have learned what they would teach at least in part from practical experience. The wizened pedagogue of tradition is yielding place to the teacher who through practical contacts has a sense of human and social values. The most effective teaching in that field of thought which is social and useful is conditioned upon practical contacts with the world of affairs. Such contacts are particularly indispensable in modern university life.

The dependence of the college and the university upon the public for such financial resources as are necessary to carry on their work constitute the superficial, and the possibility of improving the quality of college and university teaching by the fulfillment of a social obligation furnishes the real reason for making available to the public the services and specialized knowledge of the college and university expert.

### THE OBLIGATION OF PUBLIC SERVICE

The obligation of public service is now generally accepted by and for at least two of the professional groups in the university circle: the professors of education and medicine. That the depart-

ment of education should be a practical department with training classes is universally recognized in normal schools and is coming to be quite generally accepted in universities. Through conferences on city and rural educational programs, through lectures, through consultations with teachers, through special bulletins and through practical teaching work, the instructors in this department have rendered increasing public service. And with what definite results in better university teaching, in the reorganization of curricula and in the better coördination of our educational system, the educational progress of the last decade bears golden witness!

No tribute to the self-effacing, community-making spirit of twentieth century men is more inspiring than the work of the medical fraternities in their willingness to put community health before individual health. The ideal of a generation ago—the family doctor—has given away through the work of the profession itself to the community doctor. For in stamping out the sources of disease the physician has thinned his own ranks and lessened his own income. And among physicians none has done this work more nobly as a rule than the medical faculties of our universities.

More than this, in these two professions, the general standard now is that no one should have the nerve to teach or be allowed to teach who is not in practical touch with his source material: the child or the school room; the patient or the laboratory.

Other groups in our universities feel that these same standards and these same high tests should now be applied to their teaching and to their research work. As usual in such movements the younger men at least are already pushing their standards toward these ideals. Daily more abundant grows the evidence that the spirit of real service is touching the professions of law and of engineering. But it is particularly with the group of social scientists—the economists, the sociologists and the political scientists—that this paper has to do.

In the group of social scientists the first real need is for practical coöperation with public officials or others concerned with the expert's specialities. The National Association of Urban Universities exists in part in order to give national expression to the desire of the university officials and university teachers for closer coöperation between university experts and the representatives of the public whether they be public officials or officers or members of civic as-

sociations. The value of this service to the university and to the specialist is thus recognized.

#### APPARENT DIFFICULTIES

But this recognition does not mean that there are not certain difficulties to be overcome before this type of coöperation can find its best and fullest fruition. These difficulties, however, are of such a nature as to disappear when clearly understood and frankly stated. They center about the fact that these sciences are necessarily very closely related to current "political" problems and "party" issues; though it must be at once obvious that herein lies their chief value to the student who is to become the business man of the future.

It has been urged that this relation may lead to two regrettable tendencies: first, that the university use its experts solely in that way and for that purpose which it is hoped will attract income, and second, that the party leaders will ask for the coöperation of the university expert not with the thought that the services of that expert may prove valuable or his advice be taken but solely in order that the university's name and prestige may thus in a nominal way be put back of a given political movement. It has been held that there lurk in both these tendencies grave dangers to the scholarship in and to the integrity of America's higher educational institutions.

But merely to state these presumed difficulties is to be sufficiently entrenched against them. Certain ethical standards will maintain scholarship while keeping that scholarship wholesome and effective. Those university experts particularly who wish to render service to the public or to public officials can adopt certain ethical standards comparable to the ethical standards adopted by the lawyers, engineers and physicians,—ethical standards that will safeguard both their institutions and themselves. These ethical standards can be reduced to five:

#### PROPOSED ETHICAL STANDARDS FOR COÖPERATING EXPERTS

**FIRST.** *The work done for public officials should be as carefully and as thoroughly done—with indications as to sources and nature of the material—as would a monograph prepared for a scientific journal.*

The expert, moreover, should indicate all the available sources of material and if the data presented in any of those sources are at

variance with the facts presented, or with the conclusions reached, the degree of reliability of the facts or conclusions in such sources should be clearly stated. All of these principles will be adopted by any scholar as a matter of course.

**SECOND.** *The expert should segregate his conclusions or recommendations as clearly as possible from his facts.*

Many times, no doubt, it is as much the judgment of the expert that the official desires as his facts. Indeed that expert whose judgment is not sound will have little hearing before the average public official. But the report should be so framed that the conclusions can fall without involving the integrity of the facts.

**THIRD.** *While this matter is before the public official or up for public consideration the expert who drew up the report should refrain from any public discussion of it.*

It must be assumed that the public official who asks for this kind of coöperation from the university expert will have the privilege, or, if the reputation of the university or expert or city is at stake, assume the responsibility for printing in full the expert's report. This report ought then to speak for itself. There should be no occasion for this particular expert to go about the city or state urging its adoption or publicly discussing it. It is not to be assumed that the expert is at once the official adviser and the advocate who will persuade the community to agree to what he recommends to the public official. This division of duties will safeguard all parties concerned: the public official from having to disagree with the public recommendations of his expert; the expert from having to appear to be urging the adoption of his own advice; the university or college from appearing to "take sides" officially in controverted matters. We could not expect an attorney to take the stump against his client nor should we except the client to use his position to discredit the attorney. The expert's opinion once made and amply supported must be assumed to be solely for adoption or rejection by the public official.

**FOURTH.** *The college or university expert should reserve at all times the full right to enter into public discussion of any matter whatsoever other than the particular matter referred to above.*

Unless American professors wish to alienate themselves from public usefulness, their right to take part in public affairs as do other citizens will have to be most carefully preserved and protected

at whatever cost. Not to do so is to nullify completely the good that will come from coöperation between public officials and college or university experts; not to do so is to make impossible the socialization of the specialized knowledge and services of these experts. Without this right the professor is put into the class of the third American sex having—and deserving—the contempt of all.

FIFTH. *The chief purpose of practical work by the college or university expert is to assure better teaching.*

Good teaching! This is one quality which students, parents and public must demand. The best teaching particularly in the social sciences will usually be by the teacher who has the practical contacts necessary to make a man of action rather than a man of straw. Neither can there be good teaching when all or a major portion of one's energies go for research, or for that matter into public service. The clear recognition that first and foremost the business of the university teacher is to teach will prevent many an awkward situation for all parties concerned.

#### OTHER PUBLIC SERVICES

The above has to do particularly with the practical coöperating work of the expert in social, economic and political science whether in coöperation with public officials or groups of citizens or expressed in other ways. There is still another method of socializing the knowledge of the university expert and that is through popular lectures, books, magazine articles and newspaper stories. The chief obstacles here lie within the traditions of the profession itself. One of these traditions is that the written output of the professor should be stupid and useless to all save other university professors who have to read their printed pages in order to "keep up with the literature." The phrases accepted by the profession for expressing this idea are that these works should be "scientific" and "scholarly," as though that meant that they could not as well be lucid and humanly interesting. The result is the lack of the ability or the desire to so state learned truths that he who runs may read. Or perhaps if simply stated many learned social "norms" would turn out to be simple (and therefore valuable) folklore. But given practical contacts, the college or university professor will soon master the means of humanizing technical knowledge.

This socializing of the specialized knowledge of the university

expert does not assume that the university professor has some special gifts from on high that need but translation to be of benefit to the "lower classes." It means that each science has its own phrases with an exact meaning only to those accustomed to them. It means that human limitations make it easier for the expert to slide along in well worn grooves. It means, of course, that technical phrases must be used in standard technical works. It also means, however, that good teaching and good work and better social and institutional standards will all be furthered by at least a greater effort to put the conclusions of scientific scholarship into simple lucid language with homely illustrations.

It is not that other people perish for want of the knowledge of the university expert—though this has actually happened in too many cases; death itself has too often come from the want of popular knowledge of what is commonplace to the expert. But for his own growth and development the university expert must be enticed out of the institutionalism that occasionally enmeshes him. Nor is it necessary that all yield to this enticement; a bare 20 per cent will suffice.

Better teaching and better human beings for both the teacher and the taught are in this movement for the greater public service of the college and university expert.

## BOOK DEPARTMENT

### GENERAL WORKS IN ECONOMICS

FETTER, FRANK A. *Economic Principles*. (Volume I.) Pp. x, 523. Price, \$1.75. New York: The Century Company, 1915.

Professor Fetter's latest work is remarkable for the logical consistency of its theoretical structure. Beginning with a discussion of value, he abandons the terminology of the hedonistic, "marginal utility" treatment for one in which choice, based on considerations of varying desirability among goods, is fundamental. Margins, however, still mark equilibrium points, and the new terminology is really less vital in the changes it affects than might seem at first glance. But this does not affect the course of the general argument. The starting point is with the consumer. He sets into motion "waves of value." At a middle point stands the enterpriser. Consumers express through him their estimates of indirect goods and services, which get their prices from those of expected products. Rent is the direct payment for an instrumental use. Wages are a payment for services, direct or indirect. The rate of payment is a reflection of the value of these services to the purchaser of the ultimate product. This usually involves anticipated rather than immediate values. The enterpriser is intermediary in the estimate-making process. Interest is the outcome of time preference, and the rate of interest is an index of marginal preference. Costs never determine prices or values, but values do determine whether or not costs shall be incurred. An enterpriser's costs determine whether or not he can make a profit. Profits are consequently a residual, variable, "non-contractual" share of final values. Such are some of the essential conclusions of Fetter's static analysis. It does much to clear up theoretical ambiguities and inconsistencies, but to a beginner it will doubtless be forbidding. There is a quality of simplicity about the whole treatment that suggests ease of assimilation on the part of a student. But this simplicity is more seeming than real. It results from an abstruseness of treatment and a use of distinctions often so broad as to give to the student or general reader the impression that economics is a discipline both unreal and impractical.

The final book (Part VI), dealing with economic dynamics, shows a different trend. Real problems of vast social import are discussed in an absorbing way. The handling of diminishing returns (which are not), and of the Malthusian doctrine of population (which functions not) is admirable in the telling distinction that are made; and the last chapter, which deals essentially with the relations of theory to propaganda, affords an admirable summary of economic backgrounds.

Professor Fetter's coming volume will be awaited with interest. It will complete what is indeed a *magnum opus*.

R. C. McCREA.

Columbia University.

STAMP, J. C. *British Incomes and Property.* Pp. xv, 537. Price, 12s. 6d.  
London: P. S. King and Son, 1916.

This income study is the latest in the series of monographs by writers connected with the London School of Economics and Political Science. It is described in the author's own words as "the application of official statistics to economic problems." The author has taken great pains to compile the official figures dealing with property income, and to interpret them in terms of the problems in which he is particularly interested. He deals successively with Real Property, Income from the Use of Land, The Income Tax, Income from Securities, Business Profits, and Salaries of Officials. He then makes some application of the official statistics in his discussions of land values and the taxable capacity of Ireland, the national capital, the national income, the distribution of income among persons, and among income classes. Particular interest must attach to this work in the United States, first because of the thorough manner in which the study is presented, but chiefly because of the immediate application that this study must have to the problem of income and land taxes in the United States. The student who is acquainted with the sources of information available in the American government reports on the collection of the income tax is astonished at the wealth of material presented in the British reports. Furthermore, the author shows quite conclusively that tax dodging under the British Act has been largely eliminated. Although there have been a number of private endeavors to discover the income of the people of the United States, the government has made no serious effort to meet this situation, nor has it attempted to secure the maximum results in publicity by issuing a full statement of income tax figures. This study of the excellent British data furnishes an example that America ultimately must follow.

S. N.

#### GEOGRAPHY

HUNTINGTON, ELLSWORTH. *Civilization and Climate.* Pp. xii, 333. Price, \$2.50.  
New Haven: Yale University Press, 1915.

How would you make a map of civilization and the degrees thereof? One man of whom I asked this question said he would base it upon the industrial productivity of the people. But the more I pursued him for details the less he thought of his method, and he finally abandoned it entirely. I have repeated this experience several times and always with the same result. There are too many modifying circumstances.

We are continually talking about civilization and never defining it. Definitions or measures of civilization that run into quantitative terms nearly always test out badly, yet, despite this fundamental difficulty, Dr. Huntington has made a map of civilization; but this was not his only recourse. In the absence of a definite basis of measurement he fell back on a consensus of opinion, expert opinion. This he obtained before the outbreak of the Great War from persons of wide knowledge living in nearly all civilized countries. These selected persons gave their answers to a series of questions, and Dr. Huntington merely tabulated and mapped the results, giving a map of civilization of great interest. Then he applied certain quantitative tests to this opinion map.

If we cannot define civilization we can perhaps agree that it is a function of energy—human energy, aided, of course, by a certain amount of economic resource. The vital thing then becomes human energy; what causes *it*? Dr. Huntington's great contribution is that he gives us an answer to this question based upon evidence, not opinion. He measures human energy by human output—the results of labor. After handling an appalling array of figures he finds a close relation between work and weather conditions. Girls and men in New England and in Florida factories work their best when the out-of-doors temperature is about 57° F. They hold that pace with little change til 70° is reached and then, with increasing heat, output declines. Most of us would have expected something like this but, a few, I think, had previously come to the opposite conclusion, namely that very cold weather produces a similar result. This means that central Siberia is to languish under a cold curse just as central Africa is to languish under a hot one.

Brain work, as measured in the mercilessly accurate marks of Annapolis and West Point, shows the same curve with the maximum about 38° F. Even low forms of animal life and the wheat plant show a similar curve.

The above mentioned collections of human data showed that change of temperature was a stimulus to greater action. Within limits, a change of temperature either way makes us more active, but the change must not be too great for after about 8° or 10°, the change becomes enough to depress. This means that, in addition to the changeable seasons, which had been generally regarded as the basal factor in higher human dynamics, we have the cyclonic storm—this cyclonic storm that dominates our weather in the Eastern United States and Northwestern Europe and of which we so chronically and so bitterly complain. This much berated thing is, according to Huntington, the greatest dynamo of civilization upon this earth. Superimpose these changes upon an average temperature, like that of England, Holland, Northern France and Germany and we have a perfectly simple explanation of the unexampled displays of human energy there manifested. It is not by mere accident that little Britain has been so big in history.

In his daring attempt to map the unmappable and compare things difficult of comparison, Dr. Huntington often lays himself open to the flaw picking critic, but perhaps the flaws would balance. We are more inclined to this view when we note the striking resemblance of his map of human energy as made by applying the work data to the facts of climate, with the civilization map as made up from expert opinion.

If we follow his conclusions to their logical limit, it means that, pending some change of climate, the dominance of the earth is to remain where it now is, in Northwest Europe and in North Central North America with a possible rival in China and Japan.

This is a book that should receive the attention of all economists, historians and sociologists and particularly those of missionary spirit. We have cast too many ethnic jewels into places where the prospect was less than that of the pearls before swine, for swine do not hurt pearls.

J. RUSSELL SMITH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

## AGRICULTURE, MINING, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES

ADAMS, FREDERICK UPHAM. *The Conquest of the Tropics.* Pp. xii, 368. Price, \$2.00. Garden City: Doubleday, Page and Company.

If some experienced writer should go to the Standard Oil Company, get from it a collection of facts about its development and the life history of its founders, he could make a very interesting story of the development of the oil industry and the great economic services it has rendered.

Doubtless, certain ethical, legal, political and social matters of common knowledge and great interest would be omitted from the narrative.

Keeping the above facts in mind, one interested in the development of the tropics, of the banana industry, or in mere stories of achievement, will find much interesting reading in Mr. Adams' "Conquest of the Tropics" which is nothing more than the history of the United Fruit Company, its enterprises and founders, from data furnished chiefly by themselves. Mr. Adams doesn't emphasize the fact that it is often called the "Banana Trust" but he does lay stress on the point that the enterprisers needed great rewards for the risks they ran.

When one starts out to judge this company as a social or political phenomenon he should remember that the comparison should be made not with the absolute, whatever that may be, but with what would otherwise have prevailed. The United Fruit Company's political and economic achievement in the lands of a dozen Diazes and Carranzas and Villas is a commanding achievement as a type of the tropic industry of the future. It needs to be studied and Mr. Adams has given us some very interesting material with which to start.

It is suggestive to see how these Yankee enterprisers sent to the Orient for scientists and physicians, how they started an American university to studying tropic diseases, how they were the pioneer sanitarians of the American Tropics and how their costly researches at sugar making in Cuba promise to supply the world with cane fiber paper and spare our forests a heavy drain. An enterprise that employs 60,000 men in a dozen different countries might be classed as one of the Powers. In the lands along the Caribbean it is more than that in the opinion of some travellers. This book shows the economic basis of that power.

J. RUSSELL SMITH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

HARRIS, FRANKLIN S. and STEWART, GEORGE. *The Principles of Agronomy.* Pp. xvi, 451. Price, \$1.40. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

The purpose of the book as laid down in the introduction, is to "give the beginner in agricultural study a general idea of the successful production of crops and to furnish him a basis of study in other branches of agriculture."

Dr. Harris and Mr. Stewart have divided their material under the four main headings—the plant, the soil, the field crops, and field management.

Under the first heading, there is a general discussion of the plant and its environment, including the factors of growth. Then there follows a rather detailed description of plant structure setting forth the use of each of the parts described, and a description of the various plant functions. With these factors

brought out, there comes a chapter drawing a rather happy analogy between the plant and the factory, showing how the plant manufactures the three chief elements of the food of men and the lower animals, viz., proteids, carbohydrates and fats.

The next section deals with soil. The origin and formation of soils are taken up, including a description of the rocks from which soils are made and the different types of formative agents. The physical properties of the soil are considered, and a rather detailed analysis of the methods of the control of water is given, particular emphasis being laid on irrigation and dry farming. The plant food of the soil, soil bacteria, manures and fertilizers, and tillage and crop rotation each receive a share of attention. The last chapter is given over to a discussion of special problems such as erosion, acidity, etc., and methods of dealing with each problem are recommended.

Crops is the title of the third main division. Wheat, corn and other cereals such as barley, rye and oats, and their varieties are described, and some time is devoted to the methods of planting, the factors of production, the care of the crop and something of the climatic requirements of each. Root crops, grasses, sorghum and millets, the fibrous crops are treated separately, and various other crops are mentioned. The general plan of discussion for the latter groups is the same as for the cereals.

Under the caption of Field Management, the amount of planning, the kind of crops to grow and farm equipment are each taken up in turn. The book closes with a brief summing up of the factors that go to make for crop success, making the customary suggestions which are undeniably good but so seldom followed.

This work lays down an excellent foundation for a high school course or even, perhaps, for an elementary first-year course in college. Excellent supplementary readings are suggested at the end of each chapter. Furthermore, parts of the book such as the chapter on specific soil problems and the recommendations in regard to them, the section on dry farming and irrigation, have a practical every-day value.

As a piece of literature the book is open to some criticism. In a great many places there is a lack of balance. For example, Chapter 10, part II, on the control of soil water, covers some twenty pages, while the discussion of plant food of the soil, seemingly of equal importance, is accorded but six. Again, it might perhaps be better to lay more stress on climatic conditions required for the growth of various crops, giving more specific illustrations.

The arrangement, too, while excellent in the main, is not ideal. The need of the chapter entitled, What Soil Is is not entirely clear. The chapter devoted to potatoes precedes the one on root crops, and as a result there is some confusion as to whether the potato is to be classified as a root crop or not. Again, a discussion of pastures, meadows and soiling systems (24, part III) is put between the chapter on grasses and that on sorghum and millets. A discussion of pastures might well follow grasses, but in that case, by putting these two last, the matter would be clarified in the mind of the reader.

J. S. KEIR.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

ROBINSON, EDWIN VAN DYKE. *Early Economic Conditions and the Development of Agriculture in Minnesota.* Pp. v, 306. Price, \$1.50. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1915.

This big folio volume of 300 pages is a cross between a census report and the work of a German scholar. It is a storehouse of knowledge for the student of economic history, economic geography and agriculture. Its character is well indicated by its evolution. It started out to be a statistical atlas but the increasing realization that these maps, charts and graphs needed to be explained caused the author to dig and delve into contemporary publications, correspond with many of the men who had pushed along the developments, and thus he added many thousand words of text. Even the chinch bug has a map, as have practically all of the factors of agricultural development at each census period. Climatic data are also carefully mapped. The book is one that must be consulted by almost every person venturing to speak of Minnesota in any careful way. It is a matter of great regret that this is the last work of Professor Robinson who died a few months after the book appeared.

J. R. S.

#### MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY

NYSTROM, PAUL H. *Textiles.* Pp. xviii, 335. Price, \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1916.

This book presents in concise form the essential facts regarding the ordinary textiles of commerce, with especial attention to the leading members of this group; namely, linen, wool, cotton and silk. The chapters deal with the sources of the raw material, the methods of marketing and manufacture, the tests to determine quality, and the economic aspects of textiles.

The author states in his preface that he intended to interest retail and wholesale salespeople, housewives, educational institutions and the general public. It is an exceedingly difficult task to write a book for an audience so diverse as this and have the work profitable to all its readers upon all its pages, and Dr. Nystrom has not mastered the complications of his undertaking; hence no one who picks up the book will be completely satisfied with it.

Furthermore, the author touches upon so many topics that it is inevitable that his work will contain not a few inaccuracies; such as, confusing *wool* with *hair*, and declaring that *cotton* comes from the *seed* of the cotton plant, or drawing the inference that because labor is minutely subdivided in the manufacture of shoes and men's clothing that it is equally specialized in all industries. From the closeness with which Dr. Nystrom follows standard authorities upon the chief textiles, we are at liberty to suppose that he himself is none too familiar with his subject; and moreover he limits himself to statements of facts with almost no explanation of the factors of causation behind those facts, a flaw most noticeable in the chapters on the Geography of the Cotton Trade and the Geography of Wool Production.

While writing, the author must have had most prominently before his mind the retail salesgirl portion of his audience for the literary style of the book nowhere advances beyond the intelligence of such a person.

Notwithstanding these objections to the book, it may be of real service as a class room text, for it summarizes most of the important facts in regard to textiles; retail and wholesale salespeople and housewives, also, would profit greatly by giving it a careful study.

MALCOLM KEIR.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

#### COMMERCE AND TRANSPORTATION

KIBLER, THOMAS L. *The Commodities' Clause.* Pp. 178. Price, \$3.00. Washington: John Byrne and Company, 1916.

Professor Kibler presents a brief but adequate history of the attempts of transportation companies in the United States to engage in the business of mining and manufacturing commodities to be transported by their own lines; and of the attempts to prevent such combination of interests. He takes a strong and effective stand against combinations of this kind.

T. W. V. M.

McFALL, ROBERT JAMES. *Railway Monopoly and Rate Regulation.* Pp. 223. Price, \$2.00. New York: Columbia University Press, 1916.

A discussion of the various theories of railroad rate making, with an argument in favor of the cost-of-service theory. Dr. McFall points out the advance made in recent years in the use of cost as a basis for the determination of reasonable rates, and endeavors to show that the proportion of costs which can be definitely allocated is larger "than many would have us suppose." It is interesting to note, however, that in concluding his argument for an extension of the cost principle the author says that "the greater divisions of the service should have their contributions to total cost divided as far as possible on the basis of cost, but that the rates on minor divisions of the service should be differentiated not only on the principle of cost but also on the principle of demand." After all this is the position taken by the hardened traffic official who is guided by the principle of "what the traffic will bear."

In attributing virtually a complete monopoly power to the railroads Dr. McFall gives too little consideration to such factors as water competition (potential or active) and industrial and commercial competition—factors which often compel and justify the neglect of the cost-of-service principle.

The most valuable and interesting portion of this study is that dealing with valuation of railway property. The author's conclusions as to the value to be attributed to a railroad in considering the question of a "fair return" seem eminently sound.

T. W. V. M.

PRATT, EDWIN A. *The Rise of Rail Power in War and Conquest.* Pp. xii, 405. Price, 7s. 6d. London: P. S. King and Son, Ltd., 1915.

In this instructive and timely work the author traces the beginnings and subsequent development of the use of railways in war. In this use no other nation has gone as far or proceeded with the scientific accuracy of the Germans.

This it is the evident intention of the author, an Englishman, to prove. The entire work is in fact a carefully developed thesis showing how Germany has advanced step by step from a skeptical and tardy beginning until at the breaking out of the present war, passing far beyond the question of how its railways might be most efficiently used for its defense, it had constructed military lines not only to all the frontiers of its European empire, but to the important frontiers of its African colonies and to the most important trade and strategic points in Asiatic Turkey with the evident intent to use them for conquest.

A good deal of space is necessarily devoted to the American Civil War because that war was practically the first in which there was an extended and scientific use of railways, and because many of the problems connected with such use were either started in the United States or actually worked out there, precedent being established and examples set which the rest of the world had simply to follow, adopt or perfect.

It will surprise many to learn that the total mileage of the lines taken over by the federal government during the course of the war exceeded 2,100 miles; that in its operation of these lines it laid or relaid 641 miles of track, and that the lineal feet of its bridge construction was equal to 26 miles. It was this war, says the author, that was to elevate railway destruction and restoration into a science and to see the establishment, in the interest of such science, of an organization which was to become a model for European countries and influence the whole subsequent course of modern warfare.

T. W. V. M.

SMITH, J. RUSSELL. *Commerce and Industry*. Pp. viii, 596. Price, \$1.40. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1916.

This book is an abridgement of the large volume *Industrial and Commercial Geography* which has proved so successful as a college text. There are three parts. Part one deals with the United States by classes of commodities and industries, as the cereals, animal industries and so on, and covers a little more than half the text. Part two covers all the other countries, very briefly, necessarily, as only two hundred pages are devoted to them. Brazil, for example, has about four pages and Germany about seven pages. Part three, world commerce, is devoted mainly to the law of trade and trade routes.

The book is very readable; is effectively illustrated with halftones, maps and diagrams; and some useful statistics are collected in the appendix. Barring questions which hinge on difference of opinion about method and material, the only adverse criticism must be based on the many inaccuracies of statement concerning details, which probably do not seriously affect its usefulness as a high school text.

W. S. T.

SPEARS, JOHN R. *The Story of the American Merchant Marine*. Pp. xxvii, 340. Price, \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

The second edition of Mr. Spears' volume on *The Story of the American Merchant Marine* differs mainly from the first edition of 1910 in that it contains a lengthy introduction which gives a statement of recent events in the shipping

industry. Brief mention is made of the effects of the European War on ocean rates, tonnage and shipbuilding, of the ship purchase bill, the free shipping clause of the Panama Canal Act of 1912, the registry Act of 1914, and the La Follette Seaman's Act of 1915.

The text of the book, aside from the introductory chapter, contains a series of stories rather than a connected story of the American merchant marine. It is written in popular style and contains numerous interesting accounts of specified American vessels, captains and shipping enterprises. It does not contain a complete, well organized history of the merchant marine, but gives many accounts of early shipping history which are of interest both to the general reader and to those who wish to make a more detailed study.

G. G. H.

#### ACCOUNTING, BUSINESS METHODS, INVESTMENT AND THE EXCHANGE

GUENTHER, LOUIS. *Investment and Speculation* (New and Revised Edition).  
Pp. xi, 289. Price, \$2.00. Chicago: LaSalle Extension Company, 1916.

Under the author's broad definition of the terms "investments" and "speculation," an adequate consideration of the subject of the volume within the space at his disposal is a physical impossibility. It would seem to have been better policy to have modified the title and restricted the scope of the book to security investments, omitting chapters 3, 4 and 5, dealing with real estate investments. More criticism may be indulged in regarding these three chapters, also, than probably any other three in the book. The statement is made (p. 17) that loans on agricultural lands have proved the most satisfactory. Probably illustrations of individual investors might be furnished where this is correct. On the other hand instances might be cited of particular investors, and large ones, who can show very constant returns and losses of almost no consequence on bonds. The statement is probably intended to apply to investors as a whole, but we have no statistics by which to judge of its accuracy in this respect. On page 18 occurs the statement that "our small interior banks are by far the largest lenders of capital on farm mortgages." The report of Mr. R. L. Cox to the Association of Life Insurance Presidents shows by detailed figures that on June 30, 1914, to quote him, "life insurance companies, collectively, are very much the largest owners of farm mortgages in this country, their holdings exceeding by about 20 per cent the total farm loans held by the 26,765 banks of this country." On page 28 a renewal of a second mortgage on a home at a bonus of \$100 during the panic of 1907 is stated to be "fairly indicative of the element of risk that capital considers it assumes on such obligations." On page 9 the author considers the laws enacted by various states governing the character of savings bank investments as an example of the "law of averages." It would rather seem to be an instance of the application of selection, similar to the rejection of undesirable applicants by life insurance examiners.

In chapter 6 it is intimated to the reader that the classification of bonds will be according to (1) security, (2) purpose of issue, (3) manner of payment, (4) conditions of redemption, and (5) nature of the issuing company. This manner

of treatment, probably first adequately worked out in Chamberlain's *Principles of Bond Investment*, is very satisfactory in results, but after having mentioned the plan the author proceeds to discuss government bonds, railroad bonds, public service corporation bonds, miscellaneous bonds, etc., which is certainly a departure from the above idea. The nature of the bond itself, its security, is the primary factor, generally speaking; the others are secondary. In the chapter on government bonds it is stated, regarding the high interest rates on bonds of certain governments, "This does not at all reflect upon them; it merely fixes the position of their credit in the money capitals of the world." An opinion could hardly be more significantly expressed than by "fixing the position of their credit." No description of the position of a stockholder and the characteristics of a share of stock is given; the chapter dealing with guaranteed stocks contains seven pages devoted to enumerating examples of guaranteed stocks, full descriptions of which are contained in manuals, and which enumeration conveys no principles to the student; no description is given of the various types of preferred stocks.

When chapter 14 is reached all plans of treatment are seemingly thrown aside and chapters on amortization and sinking funds, bonds for women and estates, valuation of bonds, character of an enterprise, science of speculation, efforts to prevent speculation, mystery of a balance sheet, the nature of exchanges, etc., follow each other without any attempt at arrangement.

In brief, this volume seems to suffer from three great defects (1) lack of arrangement of topics, (2) carelessness regarding details and (3) too much attempted in the available space.

It would be unfair not to mention some characteristics worthy of praise. It has the advantage often lacking in books on financial subjects of being capable of comprehension by the average reader. The greater part also has the very good feature of being quite interesting reading, likewise not very common in financial books. The portions treating of the dealings on exchanges are perhaps the best, although here also inaccuracy of statement is sometimes apparent. For instance, in describing contract trading on produce exchanges it is stated (p. 221), "All deliveries must be made on the last day of the month," whereas what is intended to be said is "All deliveries must be made on or before the last day of the month." The statement as it stands conveys the idea that the seller has no option as regards the time of delivery.

Each chapter is accompanied by from four to fourteen questions for the student, generally designed to test his memory and comprehension of the material in the chapter and the book closes with a satisfactory index of seven pages.

ROBERT RIEGEL.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

MONTGOMERY, R. H. *Auditing: Theory and Practice*. (Second edition, revised and enlarged.) Pp. xxvi, 889. Price, \$5.00. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1916.

The *Annals* of May 1913 contained a review of the first edition of this work. The revised edition eliminates some portions of the material contained in the first edition, notably reference to English cases and chapters on the Corporation

Excise Tax Law, as being non-essential or out of date. The English decisions have been replaced by a number of American decisions which are more clearly representative of Accounting matters in this country, while the discussion of the Corporation Excise Tax Law has been superseded by about one hundred pages on the Federal Income Tax Law of October 3, 1913, in its application to individuals as well as to corporations.

In this revised edition Mr. Montgomery, by keeping his material "down to the minute," still retains his preëminence as an authority on the subject of Auditing in this country. The mechanical make up of the book is worthy of comment, it being printed on thin paper and bound in flexible leather, whereby its use as a ready reference work is greatly enhanced.

E. P. M.

RAYMOND, W. L. *American and Foreign Investment Bonds.* Pp. x, 324. Price, \$3.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1916.

The number of texts dealing with American bond issues and the principles of bond investment is still so small that any worthy accession should receive a welcome. William L. Raymond of Boston has just issued through the Houghton, Mifflin Company a valuable contribution under the title *American and Foreign Investment Bonds*.

The general structure of this book follows the natural divisions of the material already established by Raymond's predecessors, except that, as the title implies, considerable attention is given to the history of foreign debt and to foreign bonds. Since the broad outlines of the relatively new "applied science" of bond investment have been established and a critical analysis of the principles of investment and of the leading types has been made, the next logical development is this we now have—a presentation of historical material and concrete cases.

The difficulty of approaching a relatively new science by the case method is that writer and reader, by surfeit of fact, are liable to mental indigestion. One is inclined to nod over oft-repeated pages of tables in fine print, and lose the perspective. If, to quote our friend *Life*, it is a case of "Aut Scissors Aut Nullus," let us have the clippings; but it is a real task to compress them into their proper place in a book covering world bond finance in 300 pages, especially when the index is inadequate.

Nevertheless the fact remains that there is in this book a fulness of detail, not otherwise accessible under one cover, regarding government, municipal and corporation obligors and issues, which will suggest reference to this work by students, dealers, and investors.

L. C.

#### LABOR PROBLEMS

NOTE, CARL H. *Industrial Arbitration.* Pp. 351, xlv. Price, \$1.50. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1916.

As the sub-title suggests, this book is a world-wide survey of agencies for the promotion of social justice and industrial peace. The first half of the chapters deals with English, German, French and Australasian experiments, the remaining half with a more detailed discussion of problems and attempted solutions in the

United States. The following conclusion is suggestive of the author's viewpoint: "Neither voluntary nor compulsory arbitration will work with any conspicuous degree of success in this country until the worker has been set free economically; until he is given a compelling voice against his employer as to his wages, hours and working conditions."

R. C. McC.

NEARING, SCOTT. *Anthracite*. Pp. 251. Price, \$1.00. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1915.

Nearing's latest volume is not likely to receive an especially sympathetic treatment from many reviewers. In the first place the viewpoint of the author is not always understood and few people are inclined to sympathize with his radical social views. Nearing is interested in labor, the low standard of living of the labor force and also in the general social well being. In consequence *Anthracite* is primarily a treatment of the coal problem from the standpoint of both labor and the general social effect of monopoly.

Nearing's general social theory is equality of opportunity. He therefore resents not only the monopoly of natural resources with the enormous profits of a few thereunder, but also the low wages paid in the industry which prevent the attainment of more than a comparatively low standard of living and deprive many of the opportunity for individual development. *Anthracite* must therefore be considered bearing these two points in mind.

The line of argument which is pursued by the author may be outlined somewhat as follows: The system of private ownership of natural resources has placed the most valuable of them in the hands of a small number of individuals who collect returns from the balance of the community. The fate of this system depends in the long run on how it will affect the general social well being. *Anthracite* is a particularly good example of natural resource monopoly and the people are compelled to pay a price for this commodity representing "all that the traffic will bear." In spite of the large returns obtained in this industry, the anthracite workers are no better paid than those in any other industry requiring a similar grade of labor, while the owners are reaping enormous profits. The increased burden of the monopoly upon consumers and the unsatisfactory position of the worker thereunder represents with some degree of accuracy the results of monopoly in general. So long as monopoly exists the consumers will pay the bill, while the worker can expect no better treatment than he receives in the most highly competitive occupation. Among the three classes, i.e., the monopolists, the workers and the general public, the monopolists alone will benefit by the continuation of this system.

All persons believing in the sacredness of private property will naturally resent this viewpoint. On the other hand nearly every one with any appreciable social bias is likely to have at least some sympathy with Nearing's attitude. No one nowadays, least of all Nearing himself, believes that all men are equal, but the desirability of equality in opportunity has many advocates. At least must it not be admitted that Nearing's view is sound to the extent that he sets up the general social well being as the final test of monopoly?

W. H. S. STEVENS,

*Tulane University.*

ROBINSON, MAURICE H. *Organizing a Business.* Pp. vi, 269. Price, \$2.00.  
Chicago: LaSalle Extension University, 1915.

This book deals primarily with the corporation inasmuch as more than half its pages treat that subject. Dr. Robinson tells what a corporation is and how it is formed; the main features of charters and by-laws; the rights and obligations of bondholders, stockholders and creditors; and the number, names and duties of officers. The leading forms used in corporate management are set forth in minute detail and at great length.

In addition to the corporation, the author devotes a small fraction of his space to other forms of organization; for example, three pages—constituting one chapter—are given over to a discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of Individual Proprietorship, and another chapter similarly concise, treats the subject of Partnership. Business combinations and Trusts and the comparative efficiency of various types of organization are also touched upon.

Since Dr. Robinson did not see fit to preface his work with a statement of his purposes, we must base our opinion of the object he hoped to attain from the text itself. We would think the work was intended for a treatise on business law if it were not for the fact that the series of which this work constitutes one member, already contains two volumes under the title *Business Law*, so we suspect that *Organizing a Business* was intended for the guidance of (very) young men living in rural communities, and about to enter business for the first time.

We must admit, however, that the book has an attractive cover.

R. M. K.

#### MONEY, BANKING AND FINANCE

PRATO, GIUSEPPE. *Documenti Finanziari degli Stati della Monarchia.* Pp. xiii, 315. Price, L. 20. Torino: Societa Tipografico, 1916.

#### SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

BAR, CARL LUDWIG VON. *A History of Continental Criminal Law.* Pp. lvi, 561. Price, \$4.00. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1916.

The science of Criminology cannot stop with a study of crime and the criminal. Criminal law and procedure as well as penology must be considered. In the reconstruction now going on in these fields new light must be sought from historical sources in order to avoid the repetition of error on the one hand and to determine methods of effectiveness on the other. Hence the value of such historical study as von Bar has made in his *History of Continental Criminal Law*. Roman and Germanic sources are particularly rich in their influence on later codes. After a study of these sources, the author adds chapters dealing with France before the revolution, Scandinavia, Switzerland and The Netherlands. Then follows several chapters dealing with the period of the French Revolution and the changes produced in France, Germany and other countries. A division of the work is devoted to the modern period comprising chiefly the nineteenth century. The last division, Part II, comprises a history of the theories of criminal law. "To disentangle and trace all the aspects and details of modern criminal

law in their development amidst the congeries of law, morals, religion and custom in successive past epochs, is a huge and delicate task, which might well make the boldest historian halt." This task the author has performed so well that his work will be invaluable not only to students of the subject but to practical legislators who seek to draft codes that will remedy some of the glaring defects of American criminal procedure.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

BIGHAM, J. A. (Ed. by). *Select Discussions of Race Problems: A Collection of Papers of Especial Use in Study of Negro American Problems, with the Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Conference for Study of Negro Problems held at Atlanta University, May 24, 1915.* Pp. 108. Price, 50 cents. Atlanta: The Atlanta University Press, 1916.

BONGER, WILLIAM ADRIAN. *Criminality and Economic Conditions.* (Trans. by Henry P. Orton.) Pp. xxix, 706. Price, \$5.50. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1916.

The author of this volume is probably correct in the assumption that the English-speaking countries have been influenced greatly by the work of the Italian School of Criminology and that the hereditary aspects of the subject have been overemphasized, but he is mistaken, we think, in his further assumption that his ideas about the ethiology of crime will be unwelcomed by American scholars. On the contrary, any rational theory of causation appeals to the American mind and this masterful presentation of the economic factors of criminality will be accepted as a most valuable complement to the factors stressed by the Italian School. That which will be called in question is the contention that economic factors alone are sufficient to explain the phenomenon of crime. This the author does more by implication than by definite statement. With due allowance for this predisposition, no work has appeared in English of greater value in a generation. Beginning with a description and criticism of the various groups of writers which he designates as the Precursors, the Statisticians, the Italian and French Schools, the Bio-Socialists, the Spiritualists, etc., the author proceeds to his own explanation of the causes of crime which are inherent in our present Economic System. By a wealth of statistics and an analysis of social causes including a study of sex and the family, etc., he has in a most convincing manner revealed the effects of environment in producing crime. Elements neglected or slighted by previous authors are given their proper significance. The American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology has rendered an invaluable service to the science of criminology by placing this book before the English-reading world. It ought to stand on the shelf beside Lombroso, Garofalo and Aschaffenberg in every collection of criminological literature in the country.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

FLEXNER, ABRAHAM and BACHMAN, FRANK P. *Education in Maryland.* Pp. xii, 176. Free on Request. New York: The General Education Board, 1916.

A report to the Governor by a commission authorized by the Legislature in 1914 "to make a comprehensive study of the public school system of the State of Maryland, of the state-aided elementary and secondary schools and of the higher educational institutions of the state with a view to correlating and coördinating the different institutions wholly or partially supported by state appropriations."

This report embodies, however, only a survey of the elementary and secondary schools of the counties. The Commission contemplates a subsequent survey of the higher institutions of the state if continued in office. The study thus far made and reported in this volume was made by four educational experts who constitute a part of the survey force of the General Education Board, New York, which Board had been invited to coöperate with the Commission. Dr. Frank P. Bachman, who had had a prominent part in the recent survey of the New York City school system, spent much of his time during a period of two years in inspecting schools in all parts of Maryland—personally visiting 16 per cent of the white teachers and 10 per cent of the colored teachers.

The pictures in this report are well chosen, the graphic illustrations are numerous and effective, the report is admirably organized and abounds in definite and constructive suggestions for improvement in administration, organization, equipment, the subject-matter and method of instruction, etc.

A. L. S.

GOODSELL, WILLYSTINE. *A History of the Family as a Social and Educational Institution.* Pp. xiv, 588. Price, \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

The growing demand for text books on social subjects is one of the most significant indices of the changes taking place in modern education. Increasing interest centers in "the proper study of mankind." The present volume is one of the most useful and valuable contributions in this lengthening series. The author very happily has combined scholarship with facility of expression in a way to make the work at the same time informing and interesting. Beginning with a short chapter on The Historical Study of the Family he proceeds to discuss The Primitive Family, The Patriarchal Family of the Hebrew, Greek and Roman Types and The Influence of Christianity upon Marriage and Family Custom in the Roman Empire. Then he describes the family in the Middle Ages, during the Renaissance, the English Family in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries and in the American Colonies. Then follows a chapter on The Effects of The Industrial Revolution on the Family, the Family during the Nineteenth Century, and The Present Situation, and concludes with a chapter on The Current Theories of Reform.

Practically every phase of family life is considered. Marriage customs and ceremonies, changes in the status of women, the position and training of children, property rights, the influence of religion, influences that destroy the family, the problem of divorce and a score of similar subjects are treated under each stage of family development.

The book adds nothing to our present knowledge of the subject, but it does present the latest views and theories, together with an abundance of concrete information in a comprehensive manner. Judged by the standards of a text book it is a splendid achievement and is destined to an extended use.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

NORTH, CECIL CLARE. *The Sociological Implications of Ricardo's Economics.* Pp. iii, 65. Price, 50 cents. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1915.

OSBORN, HENRY FAIRFIELD. *Men of the Old Stone Age.* Pp. xxvi, 545. Price, \$5.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915.

PARKYN, ERNEST. *An Introduction to Prehistoric Art.* Pp. xviii, 349. Price, \$3.25. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1915.

The bewildering succession of archaeological discoveries in Western Europe, especially since the establishing of the *Institut de la Paléontologie Humaine*, has so far resulted in little more than confusion in the lay mind. Facts were abundant in the fields of geology, anthropology, archaeology, climatology, paleobotany, zoölogy, etc., for a synthetic study of gigantic proportions. This task the author has undertaken and performed. How well he has succeeded we can determine only after a scrutiny of the work has been made by specialists in the several fields covered. The author recognizes the difficulties involved in any attempt "to place this long chapter of prehistory on an historical basis," but is convinced of its value, hence this work. Further study and criticism of material, and especially new discoveries, may result in modifications of conclusions reached, but the method of the work we believe is sound. In every case the age of "finds" has been estimated in reference to the geologic strata, the flora and fauna, the arts and industries. Geologic changes in land formation and climatic conditions with their bearing upon the distribution of vegetation and animal life are always considered.

Some of the more general conclusions are: That there have been at least four ice ages; that man has had continuous residence in the region of France for 100,000 years; that this is one of the oldest centres of human habitation; that "men with faculties like our own, but in the infancy of education and tradition, were living in this region 25,000 years ago"; that this is not the region of origin but that men migrated here from the east; that the various types as the Heidelberg, Piltdown, Neanderthal, Cro-Magnon, were not differentiated here but represent separate migrations; that the Cro-Magnon race is probably the immediate precursor of the modern European and that he belongs to the species *Homo sapiens*; that in the region of Dordogne and a few other localities the Cro-Magnon survives and composes a large element of the present population—the oldest living race in Western Europe. The book is illustrated with 8 plates and 268 figures and drawings. It is a masterpiece of synthetic analysis and is destined to stand high in the list of really great books of modern science. Published in November 1915, it is now in its second edition.

Unlike the preceding volume the work of Parkyn is purely descriptive. While the author states in the introduction that "works of art reflect the social condi-

tions and mental endowments of those who produced them," such conclusions are almost wholly wanting in the text. For the student of society, however, such a descriptive narrative is of great value. It is a valuable mine which needs only to be worked. The material is organized under the three ages—Stone, Bronze and Iron. Under palaeolithic art, stone implements, carvings in bone and ivory are described together with the mural decoration of caves. Neolithic art includes polished stone with incised designs in pottery. The character of Bronze Age pottery is next presented together with a study of the use of gold, amber and jet, for decorative purposes. The Iron Age spans the period from the earliest uses of iron including work in enamel and coral down to the late Keltic period concluding with a study of the origin of late Keltic ornament. The work will serve as a convenient cyclopedia of primitive art for those who have neither time nor opportunity to consult the widely scattered original sources. The book is profusely illustrated and well indexed.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

PHELPS, EDITH M. (Compiled by). *Selected Articles on Woman Suffrage*. (Third edition.) Pp. xlvi, 274. Price, \$1.00. White Plains: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1916.

STREIGHTOFF, FRANCES DOAN and STREIGHTOFF, FRANK HATCH. *Indiana: A Social and Economic Survey*. Pp. 261. Price, \$1.25. Indianapolis: W. K. Stewart Company, 1916.

An admirably planned and well executed work describing the resources and industries of Indiana, the system of state and local government, and the work of the various agencies for social betterment.

T. W. V. M.

WALLING, WM. E.; STOKES, J. G. P.; HUGHAN, JESSIE WALLACE; LAIDLER, HARRY W. *The Socialism of Today*. Pp. xvi, 642. Price, \$1.60. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1916.

Socialism is both a theory and a movement. Socialist literature first emphasized theory; but for about fifteen years past it has dealt primarily with socialism as a movement, and theory has become mere froth on the wave of the movement. Partisanship has colored most of this literature. The present work aims to present in a rigidly impartial way a documentary description of the socialist movement. No such comprehensive source-book has yet appeared. Even Central and South America, China and South Africa are included in the documentary presentation. Invaluable as a work of reference, it removes any excuse for ignorance of what organized socialism stands for.

R. C. McC.

WOOD, FRANCIS. *Suffering and Wrong*. Pp. x, 368. Price, \$1.75. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

This book is designed to awaken popular interest in the problem of the elimination of suffering and wrong. Its main premise is that these are due in the main to "customal" wrong; i.e., to human action and are preventable by the same

means. Suffering is described under the captions, Inebriety, Female Degradation and Subjection, War, Poverty, The Prison System and Flesh-Eating. Christianity is indicated as the ally of Customal Wrong and thus is powerless to help. The book ends with a plea for a new religion of humanity that will devote itself to the problem of prevention and elimination. The main contentions are socially sound, notwithstanding certain extreme views with which many social students will not agree.

J. P. L.

#### POLITICAL AND GOVERNMENTAL PROBLEMS

HILL, JOHN PHILIP. *The Federal Executive*. Pp. viii, 269. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1916.

This book is the outgrowth of a series of lectures, delivered by the author in several colleges. Its aim is to "assist in the understanding of the creation, development, organization, and functions of the federal executive," using the latter term to include the President and the executive departments. After a general survey of the position of the executive in the federal government, the establishment and growth of the various departments are traced. The status of the heads of departments as a cabinet and the present organization of the separate departments are next considered. A brief chapter indicates the influence of some of the presidents upon the executive departments, and a concluding chapter suggests probable future developments. The author recommends the establishment in the near future of departments of Education, of Transportation, and of Interstate Trade, together with considerable coördination of the present somewhat chaotic distribution of functions. For some reason he fails to note the need for a department of Colonial affairs. The book, while adding little that is new, is a valuable compilation of information. Like most books of its kind, however, it fails to give any adequate idea of the actual working of the administration.

R. G. G.

*Index Digest of State Constitutions*. (Prepared by Legislative Drafting Research Fund.) Pp. vii, 1546. New York: New York State Convention Commission, 1915.

MUNRO, W. B. *Principles and Methods of Municipal Administration*. Pp. xi, 491. Price, \$2.25. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

This volume is intended to supplement the author's *Government of American Cities* which dealt with the organization of city government in the United States. The present volume deals with functions rather than frame work. It aims to show how various city departments are organized, what work they have to do and what problems they usually encounter in getting things done. After an introductory chapter the author considers the following branches of administration: City Planning, Streets, Water Supply, Waste Disposal and Sewerage, Public Lighting, Police Administration, Fire Prevention and Fire Protection, School Administration, Municipal Finance.

In his method of treatment the author has tried to steer a middle course between a general survey of the most elementary character, and a technical

treatise covering in great detail some single branch of municipal work. In this purpose the author has succeeded admirably, as well as in his desire to provide a means whereby public opinion may be educated to the point of understanding the underlying questions of policy, principle and method involved in the various branches of administration discussed. The volume is well written and would make interesting and valuable reading for every citizen, and especially for every municipal officer.

The principal defect of the book lies in its omissions. The reader in looking through the table of contents is at once struck by the omission from the list of subjects of a treatment of public health, social welfare activities, and public utility regulation. These are certainly among the most fundamental of the problems of municipal administration today and among those on which the public and the officials alike are most in need of enlightenment. The author does indeed admit that the book does not touch upon every phase of city administration, but it is doubtful whether his assertion that it includes a substantial part of the entire field can be interpreted to mean the main or most important part. A discussion of the three omitted subjects mentioned on the scale adopted for those included might have increased the size of the volume beyond the desires of the publishers. But in that case the treatment of some of the subjects discussed might with profit have been condensed or omitted altogether to make room for what seem to be more fundamental matters. For instance, by combining the chapters on police and fire administration into one chapter and the chapters on streets and public lighting into one chapter, public health and social welfare might each have been given a place.

These omissions are particularly unfortunate from the point of view of text-book use. There is still wanting a text-book on municipal functions which covers substantially the entire field of municipal administration in the admirable way in which Professor Munro covers the subjects treated by him.

HERMAN G. JAMES.

*University of Texas.*

#### INTERNATIONAL QUESTIONS

ABBOTT, JAMES FRANCIS. *Japanese Expansion and American Policies.* Pp. viii, 267. Price, \$1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916.

This lucid and interesting book is, *first*, a brief history of the modern evolution of Japan, showing how the magnanimous treatment of the country by the early American diplomats and missionaries gained its confidence; *then*, the gradual separation of interests as Japan matured and found a divergent field, a separation encouraged by our own unfriendly attitude in California; and, *finally*, a consideration of the results likely to follow this separation.

In dealing with "the yellow peril" he advises the adoption of some such policy as that proposed by Dr. Sidney L. Gulick of admitting from each foreign country a percentage of the immigrants from that country already here, which general rule would offend no one, and yet render assimilable all who come. This would reduce yellow immigration to very small dimensions.

As to the chances of war he considers them negligible. America is the only

nation that buys more of Japan than she sells. Under present conditions it would be suicidal to put an end to this, and the success of Japan in a war would be so doubtful that her wise statesmen, unless goaded by American injustice, would never risk it.

He would have America recognize a Monroe Doctrine for the far East under the guidance of Japan, thus ensuring her friendship for us, an open door in China, and the best interest of Asia.

Under present conditions of excitement and suspicion it would be most wholesome for this book to have large reading.

I. S.

ADLER, FELIX. *The World Crisis and Its Meaning.* Pp. 232. Price, \$1.50.  
New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1915.

The eight chapters in this book comprise the subject-matter of a series of public addresses by the author. It is interesting to one whose training has been economic and sociologic to read this keen analysis of present problems from an ethical viewpoint. "The war," Dr. Adler says, "is a demonstration of the insufficiency of our ethical concepts." In our defence of nationalism we have failed to see "that the nationalism of one people is consistent with that of others" and that there must be created "a deep sense of the worth of different types of civilization."

This ethical idea permeates the entire book. We have been suffering under the illusion, he says, in the chapter on international peace, that there is a quick remedy for war and have not sufficiently noticed such factors as world unrest or differences in the stage of civilization reached by different nations. The engine to create peace is good will, and he proposes an international conference composed of representatives from the laboring classes, manufacturers, agriculturists and universities, and not of diplomats alone as a means of averting war. An ideal to be sure, but deserving of serious consideration by those who are seeking a way out.

The chapter on Civilization and Progress in the Light of the War is one of the most interesting in the book. An ethical society is the ideal and civilization only the means. That civilization has not produced a society morally acceptable, there are three proofs: (1) a highly civilized society may coexist with internal moral decay; (2) the benefits of civilization are yet available only to a minority; and (3) civilized peoples show the most flagrant conduct toward uncivilized.

The failure of most "programs" is due to a defective philosophy, a philosophy which neglects elements vital to any solution. It is probably because most of us are narrow and cannot see a problem in its wider relations. Dr. Adler has done a great service in this book by giving us the larger view.

B. D. M.

BATY, T. and MORGAN, J. H. *War: Its Conduct and Legal Results.* Pp. xxviii, 578. Price, 10s. 6d. London: John Murray, 1915.

This work is an authoritative commentary on British policy during the present war rather than a general treatise on the law of war. The three divisions into which the book is divided deal with The Crown and the Subject (Part 1),

The Crown and the Enemy (Part 2), The Crown and Its Treaty Obligations (Part 3), The Subject and the Enemy (Part 4) and The Crown and the Neutral (Part 5). In a final subdivision (Part 6), the authors deal with the legal effects of the moratorium and a number of miscellaneous topics that do not fit into the preceding portions of the work. A valuable appendix contains the text of British legislation, Orders in Council and Proclamations of the Crown since the outbreak of the war.

Of the long series of essays and treatises that have appeared since the outbreak of the war this volume will be one of the most valuable to the student of international law, for in it he will find the documentary material which will enable him to follow step by step the development of British policy, and to test the principles of that policy by the traditional and accepted principles of International Law. It must not be supposed that the authors have simply formulated a defense of British policy. Throughout the work they show not only independence of judgment but a readiness to criticize British policy.

The most illuminating portions of the work are the chapters dealing with measures of internal policy, especially the so-called "Defense of the Realm" Acts. They show to what an alarming extent military commissions have supplanted the regular civil tribunals. The far-reaching powers granted to the British executive under these Acts stand in marked contrast with the constitutional limitations to which the American executive, both state and federal, is subjected. While the British plan undoubtedly contributes toward executive efficiency, there is involved a serious danger to the fundamental civil rights of the citizen. This fact is brought out with great clearness.

L. S. R.

GOLDSMITH, PETER H. *A Brief Bibliography of Books in English, Spanish and Portuguese relating to the Republics commonly called Latin American; with comments.* Pp. xix, 107. Price, 50 cents. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

HUBERICH, CHARLES HENRY and KING, RICHARD. *The Prize Code of the German Empire.* Pp. xxiii, 177. Price, \$2.50. New York: Baker, Voorhis and Company, 1915.

The translators and editors of this little volume have done a real service in placing before students of international law an authoritative compilation of *The Prize Code of the German Empire*. There have been so many conflicting statements with reference to German law and German practice that considerable confusion has arisen in the minds both of students and publicists. To American students the value of this volume is considerably enhanced by the appendix in which the editors have reprinted the treaties of 1785, 1799 and 1825 between the United States and Prussia, all of which contain important provisions applicable to our present relations to the European conflict.

L. S. R.

PHELPS, EDITH M. (Compiled by). *Selected Articles on the Monroe Doctrine.* (Second and enlarged edition.) Pp. xxxiii, 337. Price, \$1.00. White Plains: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1916.

ROHRBACH, PAUL. *German World Policies.* (Trans. by Edmund von Mach.) Pp. xi, 243. Price, \$1.25. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

This book under its German title, *Der Deutsche Gedanke in der Welt*, is said to have inspired more Germans than any other book published since 1871 because of the true picture it presents of the way the Germans had resolved to go. Written in 1912 by one of the most popular German authors of books on politics, it calls on government and people to spread by all possible means the German national idea throughout the world in the manner of the Anglo-Saxon, but for a "service for mankind" greater than that of any other country. Intensely idealistic and nationalistic, and in a style whose fervor is not lost in translation, the author preaches a veritable crusade against English foreign policy and influence whose chief effect and aim he clearly believes is to stifle and destroy the rising German competition. For illustrating the viewpoint of the more peaceful prophets of the German mission in the world the book is one of the clearest and most readable that has appeared.

J. C. B.

SCOTT, JAMES BROWN (Ed.). *The Hague Conventions and Declarations of 1899 and 1907.* Pp. xxx, 303. Price, \$1.00. New York: Oxford University Press, 1915.

Although a number of volumes have been published relating to the Hague Conventions, we have hitherto lacked a carefully worked out comparison between the Conventions and Declarations of 1899 and 1907. In furnishing such a comparison, Dr. Scott, Director of the Division of International Law of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, has performed a service to students of international law, which will be appreciated not only by special students of the subject but by all those interested in the maintenance of law and order in international relations.

The compilation is preceded by an illuminating introduction by Dr. Scott. The text of each Convention and Declaration is followed by a carefully compiled list of ratifications, adhesions and reservations. As regards reservations, each country is treated separately, so that it is possible to ascertain with little difficulty the precise attitude of each country toward such treaty or convention. Dr. Scott's work places before everyone interested in international affairs a clear picture of the present status of the treaties and conventions adopted at the Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907.

L. S. R.

WOODS, FREDERICK ADAMS and BALTZLEY, ALEXANDER. *Is War Diminishing?* Pp. xi, 105. Price, \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1915.

A lengthy introduction exhibits the futility of either militarists or pacifists to interpret the factors that produce war. There follows a critical study of the history of the chief countries of Europe for approximately one thousand years to ascertain by an examination of the actual years of war and peace in each nation, not whether war ought to diminish but whether it *is* diminishing. No startling discovery is made. It is refreshing amidst the hundreds of volumes now being written from the emotional, personal and subjective points of view to find one of this dispassionate and critical temper.

J. P. L.

## MISCELLANEOUS

CRESSY, EDWARD. *An Outline of Industrial History.* Pp. xiv, 364. Price, \$1.10. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

This is an admirable little book both in what it proposes to do and in what it does. It is offered as a supplement to smaller histories and as an introduction to the larger ones which trace the growth of industry and commerce primarily from the standpoint of English development. The scientific or technological basis of industry is emphasized. The various fields of economic enterprise are described in a succession of chapters. Political activity in certain phases and economic thought in its main outlines are treated in parallel chapters.

R. C. McC.

FISHER, ARNE (trans. and edited by). *The Mathematical Theory of Probabilities and Its Application to Frequency Curves and Statistical Methods.* Pp. xx, 171. Price, \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

A statement of modern studies in probability in a volume available to English readers. Mr. F. W. Frankland, well known actuary and member of actuarial and statistical societies in the United States and Great Britain, writes an introduction to it and declares it to be the finest book in the English language on the subject.

B. D. M.

HUDDERS, E. R. *Indexing and Filing.* Pp. xii, 292. Price, \$3.00. New York: Ronald Press Company, 1916.

Each office has filing needs peculiarly its own, and yet after all there is a striking uniformity in the fundamentals underlying the filing and indexing of correspondence and material. In this work, Mr. Hudders has completely described, in a clear and concise style, the various forms of filing systems. Some of the chapter headings will serve to indicate the nature of the material set forth: rules for writing indexes, filing of papers, direct alphabetic filing, alphabetic-numeric filing, information and data files, catalog and pamphlet filing, purchase records, sales records, credit records, filing of sales invoices, filing in lawyers' offices, architectural filing, files of an accountant, etc. The work will prove of value not only to those who are anxious to establish a filing system that is accurate, comprehensive and expansive, but also to those whose already established filing systems seem not to provide for expansion adequate to the incoming material.

A. E. R.

*Philadelphia.*

KELTIE, J. SCOTT (Ed.). *The Statesman's Year Book, 1915.* Pp. lxxxiv, 1536. Price, \$3.50. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1915.

In spite of the unusual difficulties involved in the preparation of the *Statesman's Year Book for 1915*, the publication has lost none of its interest and value. The difficulties involved in securing recent data with reference to the countries of Western Europe have not in any way detracted from the value of the work.

Furthermore, the material relating to the Far East, especially that relating to China, has been considerably enlarged. In view of the conditions under which this publication has been issued the editors are to be congratulated on the content of the 1915 edition.

L. S. R.

NEWELL, FREDERICK HAYNES. *Irrigation Management*. Pp. x, 306. Price, \$2.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1916.

The fundamental problem connected with irrigation is not concerned with concrete and the digging of ditches. The main question and the real difficulty really arise when the dams are built and the water is stored behind them. To properly utilize the irrigation systems and to get fair returns from the land irrigated are the vital problems to be solved.

With this as his thesis, Mr. Newell treats some of the specific difficulties which grow out of it. Thus he discusses the methods of operation, operation organization, the legal aspect, and various other problems.

The book contains a great deal of valuable information for the man actually engaged in the work. In this connection, it might be suggested that a few more illustrations would not be amiss. For college work, it should form an excellent basis for class discussion.

Much of the material in the book has been put forth before in one form or another. But the book strikes one or two new notes, as for instance, in the chapter on the importance of the human factor. As a whole it forms a collection of instructive data, rather well arranged.

J. S. K.

RIPLEY, WILLIAM Z. *Trusts, Pools and Corporations* (Revised). Pp. xxxiii, 872. Price, \$2.75. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1916.

Since the publication of the first edition of this work in 1905, there have been many important changes in the organization and regulation of industrial combinations. The decisions of the Supreme Court in the Standard Oil Company and the American Tobacco Company suits, the application of the principle laid down in these cases, and the enactment of the Clayton law and the Trade Commission law have been the outstanding features of a new and important period. In this edition Professor Ripley presents the leading documentary and other descriptive material concerning both the earlier and the recent phases of the "trust" problem.

T. W. V. M.

ROBINSON, CHARLES M. *City Planning: with special reference to the Planning of Streets and Lots*. Pp. xiii, 344. Price, \$2.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1916.

Town planning has acquired the distinction of being both the art and science of laying out cities to serve the business requirements, convenience, health and comfort of the public. Mr. Robinson's book teaches the methods of town planning. It not only carries the merit of creating within the reader a stronger desire

for a more beautiful and efficient city, but furnishes in technical detail the means whereby desires may be made realities.

The author gives primary concern to the problem of street planning. The lesson we must yet learn in constructing highways is the importance of knowing the real uses and functions the proposed streets are to give. Realizing this, a larger part of the book gives consideration to showing just how the laying out of streets may be made to serve actual needs.

The latter part of the book deals with legislation necessary for improved city planning. The problem of remnants, street widening and zoning are treated. The many illustrations and charts not only carry interest, but clarify the issues and problems the author wishes to portray.

C. R.

WICKWARE, FRANCIS G. (Ed.). *The American Year Book, 1915.* Pp. xviii, 862.  
Price, \$3.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1916.

With each year the plan of the *American Year Book* is enlarged and its value to students increased. It is but natural that the edition of 1915 should give special attention to our international relations. These are dealt with in three comprehensive sections: Section I, American History; Section III, International Relations; Section IV, Foreign Affairs.

While each one of the thirty-three sections into which the work is divided contains material of much value to students of current affairs, these three sections are indicative of the care and thoroughness with which the work of compilation is conducted. It would be difficult to find a clearer presentation of American foreign relations than that contained in the three sections above referred to. It is but six years since the publication of the *American Year Book* was begun, but in this short time it has acquired a position which assures to it a definite and important place in the compilations which students are accustomed to use in keeping in touch with current events. The editors have gained for themselves the confidence of the public in the accuracy of the material presented.

L. S. R.

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